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OS. UND ENGL. SCHULBIBLIOTHEK
BAND XXII. ENGLISCH.

HISTORICAL
BIOGRAPHIES

BY

GARDINER.

DRITTE AUFLAGE.

LEIPZIG.
RENGERSCHE BUCHHANDLUNG
GEBHARDT & WILISCH.

Verzeichnis

der in der **Französischen und Englischen Schulbibliothek**

(herausgeg. von Dir. Dr. Otto Dickmann — Verlag der Rengerschen Buchhdlg., Leipzig)
erschiedenen Bände.

a) Geschichte und Kulturgeschichte s. unter:

Addison					Thierry
Barante	Gibbon	Lamartine	Michaud	Sarcey	Thiers
Barrau	Guizot	Lamé-Fleury	Mignet	Scott	de Vigny
Duruy	Halévy	Lanfrey	Montesquieu	Ségur	Villemain
Erckmann-Chatrian	Hume	Macaulay	Robertson	Taine	Voltaire.

b) Erzählungen, Lebensbilder, Reise-, Länder- u. Städte-Beschreibungen s. unter:

Addison	Corbet-	Florian	King Leir etc.	Marryat	Southey
Aladdin	Seymour	Forbes	Lamartine	Maxime du Camp	Souvestre
Arago	Daudet	La France	Lamé-Fleury	Mérimée	Spyri
Aymeric	Defoe	Franklin	Le petit	Mignet	Stahl
Barante	Dhombres et	Gardiner	Paresseux	Monod	Swift
Bersier	Monod	Girardin	Les deux	Paris	Tales and Stories
Bruno	Dickens	Goldsmith	Moineaux	Parley	Theuriet
Burnett	Duruy	Grimm	Little Susy's	Passy	Thierry
Carraud	Edgeworth	Guizot	etc.	Poor Nelly	Traill
Colomb	Erckmann-	Gyp	Litré	Robin Hood	Verne
Conteurs	Chatrian	Hanson	Maistre,	Saintine	de Vigny
Coolidge	Erzählungen	d'Hérison	Xav. de	Scott	Voltaire
Coppée	Fénélon	Irving	Malot	Sewell	Yonge.

c) Reden und Briefe s. unter:

Frédéric le Grand. Reden englischer Staatsmänner. Reden französischer Kanzelredner.

d) Dramatische Poesie und Gedichte s. unter:

Augier et Sandeau	Delavigne	Piron	Scott
Byron	Gedichte, engl.	Racine	Scribe et Delavigne
Corneille	— franz.	Regnard	Shakespeare
	Molière	Sandau	Voltaire.

(Reihe A: Prosa — Reihe B: Poesie — Reihe C: für Mädchenschulen.)

Reihe. Band (T. A.: Sammlung Französischer und Englischer Text-Ausgaben.)

- A 49. Addison, Sir Roger de Coverley. (Aus: The Spectator). Erklärt von Oberlehrer Dr. H. Fehse. Mit 1 Karte. M. 0. 90.
- T.A. 10. Aladdin or The Wonderful Lamp (Wörterbuch dazu 20 Pf.) M. 0. 60.
- A 90. Arago, Histoire de ma Jeunesse. Erkl. v. Oberl. Dr. O. Klein. M. 1. 20.
- B 22. Augier et Sandeau, Le Gendre de M. Poirier. Erklärt von Prof. Dr. J. Sarrazin. M. 1. 10.
- A 72. Aymeric, Dr. Jos. De Leipsic à Constantinople. Journal de route. 1892. M. 1. 10.
- A 20. Barante, Jeanne Darc. Erklärt von Oberlehrer Dr. K. Mühlefeld. 2. Aufl. Mit 2 Kärtchen und 2 Plänen. M. 1. 40.
- A 47. Barrau, Scènes de la Révolution française. Erklärt von Prof. Dr. B. Lengnick. Mit 2 Plänen und 1 Karte. M. 1. 50.
- C 2. Bersier, Mme., Les Myrtilles. Stufe II. Herausgegeben von M. Mühry. M. 0. 70.
- A 97. Bruno, Francinet. Erklärt von Prof. Dr. J. Sarrazin. M. 1. —.
- A 77. Burnett, Little Lord Fauntleroy. Erkl. v. Prof. G. Wolpert. M. 1. 10.
- B 10. Byron, Childe Harold's Pilgrimage. (Auswahl.) Erklärt von Oberlehrer Dr. R. Werner. M. 1. 40.
- C 14. Carraud, Mme. J., Contes. Stufe II. Herausgegeben von Dr. Cl. Klöpper. M. 0. 80.
- C 4. Colomb, Mme., La Fille de Carilès. Stufe IV. Herausgegeben von M. Mühry. 2. Aufl. M. 0. 70.
- A 69. Conteurs modernes. (Jules Simon, Theuriet, Révillon, Moret, Richebourg.) Erklärt von Prof. Dr. J. Sarrazin. M. 0. 90.

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- C 11. **Coolidge, Susan, What Katy did at School.** Stufe IV. Herausgegeben von Direktor A. Seedorf. M. 1. —.
- A 67. **Coppée, Ausgew. Erzählungen.** Erkl. v. Oberl. Dr. A. Gundlach. M. 1. —.
- C 20. **Corbet-Seymour, Only a Shilling.** A Story etc. Stufe II. Herausgegeben von Dr. Cl. Klöpffer. M. . . .
- B 2. **Corneille, Le Cid.** Erklärt von Rektor Dr. W. Knörich. M. 1. 30.
- B 17. **Corneille, Cinna.** Erklärt von Professor Dr. P. Schmid. M. 1. —.
- B 21. **Corneille, Horace.** Erklärt von Professor Dr. P. Schmid. M. 1. 10.
- A 27. **Daudet, Ausgew. Erzählungen.** Erkl. v. Dir. Dr. E. Gropp. 4. Aufl. M. 1. 10.
- A 94. **Daudet, Le Petit Chose.** Erklärt von Dr. J. Aymeric. M. 1. 30.
- A 56. **Daudet, Tartarin de Tarascon.** Erkl. v. Dr. J. Aymeric. 2. Aufl. M. 1. —.
- A 75. **Defoe, Robinson Crusoe.** Erkl. von Oberlehrer Dr. K. Foth. M. 1. —.
- B 8. **Delavigne, Louis XI.** Erklärt von Direktor Ph. Plattner. M. 1. 80.
- A 45. **Dhombres et Monod, Biographies historiques.** Erklärt von Oberlehrer H. Bretschneider. 4. Aufl. M. 1. —.
- A 98. **Dickens, A Christmas Carol in prose.** Erkl. von Oberl. B. Röttgers. M. 1. 10.
- A 95. **Dickens, David Copperfield's Schooldays.** Erklärt von Professor Dr. H. Bahrs. M. 1. 20.
- A 88. **Dickens, Sketches.** Erkl. v. Oberl. Dr. E. Penner. Mit 1 Plan. M. 1. —.
- A 93. **Dickens, The Cricket on the Hearth.** Erkl. v. Oberl. B. Röttgers. M. 1. 20.
- A 63. **Duruy, Biographies d'hommes célèbres des temps anciens et modernes.** Erkl. von Oberlehrer Karl Penner. Mit 2 Abbild. 2. Aufl. M. 1. —.
- A 2. **Duruy, Histoire de France de 1560/1643.** Erklärt von Dir. Prof. Dr. A. G. Meyer. 3. Aufl. Mit 3 Kartensk. u. 1 Spezialkarte M. 1. 40.
- T.A. 9. **Edgeworth, Miss, Popular Tales.** (Wörterbuch dazu 30 Pf.) M. 0. 50.
- A 43. **Eckmann-Chatrion, Histoire d'un Conscrit de 1813.** (Im Auszuge). Erkl. v. Dir. Prof. Dr. G. Strien. 3. Aufl. Mit 1 Karte. M. 1. 40.
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- C 19. **Erzählungen, Ausgewählte.** Aus: Voyage en France par deux sœurs par Clarisse Juranville et Pauline Berger. Stufe I. Herausgegeben von Dr. Cl. Klöpffer. M. . . .
- T.A. 15. **Fénelon, Aventures de Télémaque.** (Wörterbuch dazu 20 Pf.) M. 0. 70.
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- A 32. **Gardiner, Historical Biographies.** Erklärt von Prof. G. Wolpert. 2. Aufl. M. 1. 10.
- B 11. **Gedichte. Auswahl englischer Gedichte** von Dir. Dr. E. Gropp und Dir. Prof. Dr. E. Hausknecht. 4. Aufl. 16 Bogen 8°. M. 2. —.
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- A 17. Gibbon, History of the 1. and 4. Crusades.** Erklärt von Direktor Dr. F. Hummel. Mit 2 Plänen. M. 1.40.
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- C 9. Gyp, Petit Bleu.** Stufe IV. Herausgeg. v. Direktor A. Seedorf. M. 1. —.
- A 84. Halévy, L'invasion.** Erkl. v. Prof. Dr. J. Sarrazin. M. 3 Plänen. M. 1. —.
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- A 30. Lanfrey, Campagne de 1809.** Erklärt von Prof. Dr. J. Sarrazin. 2. Aufl. Mit 3 Plänen. M. 1.50.
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Fortsetzung am Ende des Bandes.

Die Französische und Englische Schulbibliothek

erscheint seit dem 1. Oktober 1883; sie ist eine Sammlung der besten französischen und englischen Schriftsteller.

Bezüglich des inneren Wertes derselben verweisen wir auf den nachfolgenden Prospekt der Schriftleitung, in welchem die befolgten Grundsätze niedergelegt sind.

Über die äußere Ausstattung heben wir folgendes hervor:

a) *Schrift*. Dieselbe entspricht *allen von medizinisch-pädagogischen Vereinen gestellten Anforderungen*. Sie ist groß, scharf und deutlich lesbar wegen des richtigen Verhältnisses zwischen Höhe der großen und kleinen Buchstaben unter sich und zwischen Buchstabenhöhe und Entfernung der einzelnen Zeilen; *selbst schwache Augen dürften lange Zeit ohne Ermüdung diese Schrift lesen können*.

b) *Papier*. Dasselbe ist ein eigens hierzu angefertigter, kräftiger, nicht durchscheinender, guter Stoff von gelblicher Färbung, *die sehr wohlthuend auf das Auge des Schülers wirkt*.

c) *Einband*. *Kein Buch wird anders verkauft als in einem biegsamen, dauerhaften Einbände*. Es soll verhindert werden, was leider zu oft der Fall ist, daß der Schüler nach kaum einigen Wochen ein zerrissenes Buch in Händen hat.

P r o s p e k t.

Die „**Französische und Englische Schulbibliothek**“ ist aufgebaut auf den Thesen der Direktoren-Versammlung in der Provinz Hannover (1882); sie hat sich den Anforderungen *der Lehrpläne und Lehraufgaben für die höheren Schulen vom Jahre 1891*, soweit es erforderlich war, *genau angepaßt*. Sie bringt nicht nur *modern französische Prosa und Poesie des XIX. Jahrhunderts* (Lehrpläne und Lehraufgaben von 1891, S. 30), sondern sie berücksichtigt auch *die Realien*, sodaß sie *die geforderte Bekanntschaft mit dem Leben, den Sitten, Gebräuchen, den wichtigsten Geistesbestrebungen beider Nationen* vermittelt (Lehrpläne und Lehraufgaben von 1891, S. 38 bis 39) und *den weitgehendsten Forderungen der Gymnasien und Realanstalten* gerecht wird. Folgende Grundsätze sind für die Gestaltung derselben maßgebend.

1. Die *Schulbibliothek* bringt *Prosa und Poesie*. Die *Prosa* dient teils zur *Belebung der geschichtlichen Kenntnisse*, teils zur *Erweiterung des Wortschatzes* nach der Seite des *Technischen, Wissenschaftlichen und Kommerziellen* hin (Lehrpläne und Lehraufgaben von 1891, S. 31 und S. 33), teils auch zur *Unterhaltung*; die *Poesie* bringt die *bedeutendsten Erzeugnisse des 17., 18. und 19. Jahrhunderts*.

2. Die *Prosabände* enthalten den Lesestoff für je ein *Halbjahr*. Mit Ausnahme der *Lebensbeschreibungen* berühmter Männer aus den verschiedensten Gebieten des französischen und englischen Kultur-, Geistes- und Verkehrslebens, welche, *ohne Beeinträchtigung des Gesamtbildes*, zweckentsprechend *gekürzt* erscheinen, werden nur *Teile eines Ganzen* veröffentlicht, *die in sich eine Art Ganzes bildend*, eine hinreichende Bekanntschaft mit den bedeutendsten Geisteswerken und deren Verfassern ermöglichen.

3. Vor *jedem Bande* erscheint eine dem Gesichtskreis des Schülers entsprechende *Lebensbeschreibung* des Schriftstellers sowie eine kurze Zusammenstellung *alles dessen, was zum vollen Verständnis desselben zu wissen nötig scheint*. Den *poetischen Bänden* gehen ferner eine *metrische* und eine *sprachliche* Einleitung voran, die sich *streng* an das betreffende Stück anlehnen.

4. Der *Text* ist bei den *Prosaikern* der Übersichtlichkeit halber in kürzere Kapitel geteilt und wird nach den *besten* Gewährsmännern gegeben.

5. Die *Rechtschreibung* ist *einheitlich* behandelt; den *französischen* Bänden liegt die Ausgabe des *Dictionnaire de l'Académie* von 1877 zu Grunde.

6. Die *Anmerkungen* sind *deutsch*; sie stehen von Band 100 ab in *allen* Bänden *hinter* dem Texte.

7. Die sachliche *Erklärung* bringt das *Notwendige* ohne *gelehrtes* Beiwerk. *Sprachliche Anmerkungen* finden sich da, wo eine *Eigenheit* in der Schreibweise des betr. Schriftstellers oder eine *Abweichung* von dem herrschenden Sprachgebrauche vorliegt; die *Grammatik* wird nur ganz *ausnahmsweise* behandelt, wenn sich die Schwierigkeit einer Stelle durch die nicht leicht bemerkbare *Unterordnung* unter eine grammatische Regel heben läßt; auf eine bestimmte Grammatik ist nicht hingewiesen. Die *Synonymik* ist *nicht* berücksichtigt. *Soll dieselbe ihren Zweck als formales Bildungsmittel nicht verfehlen, so muß da, wo das Verständnis des Textes und die Wahl des richtigen Ausdrucks selbst eine synonymische Aufklärung erheischen, diese gemeinschaftlich von den Schülern gesucht und unter der unmittelbaren Einwirkung des Lehrers gefunden werden.* Aus gleichen Gründen ist der *Etymologie* kein Platz eingeräumt.

8. *Übersetzungen*, die nur der *Trägheit* des Schülers Vorschub leisten, sind ausgeschlossen. — Die Herausgabe von *Sonderwörterbüchern* zu einzelnen Bänden hat sich als eine *zwingende Notwendigkeit* erwiesen; denn abgesehen davon, daß so ziemlich alle Konkurrenzunternehmen derartige Wörterbücher haben, welche sich die Schüler *auf jeden Fall* zu verschaffen wissen, sind auch an die Schriftleitung seitens zahlreicher Amtsgenossen Zuschriften gelangt, denen zufolge die namentlich für die *mittleren* Klassen bestimmten Ausgaben nur *mit einem Wörterbuche* in Gebrauch genommen werden können, weil *erst in den oberen Klassen* auf die Anschaffung eines Schulwörterbuches *gedrungen* wird. Auch ist der Wunsch ausgesprochen, der *Privatlektüre* Rechnung zu tragen, „die auf den *oberen* Klassen die *notwendige Ergänzung* der *Schularbeit* (Lehrpläne und Lehraufgaben von 1891, S. 66) bilden soll“. *Da jedoch die Wörterbücher den betreffenden Bänden nicht beigegeben sind, sondern erst auf Verlangen nachgeliefert werden, so bedarf es nur eines Antrages seitens der Schule, wenn das Sonderwörterbuch nicht geliefert werden soll.*

9. *Aussprachebezeichnungen* werden hinzugefügt, wo die Schulwörterbücher den Schüler im Stiche lassen, *sie fehlen* auch bei den *seltener* vorkommenden *ausländischen Eigennamen*, weil die *gebildeten Engländer und Franzosen* bemüht sind, *dieselben* so *auszusprechen, wie sie im Lande selbst ausgesprochen werden.*

10. Den *geschichtlichen* Stoffen sind *Abbildungen, Karten und Pläne* beigegeben; *Verzeichnisse* zu den Anmerkungen erleichtern das Zurechtfinden in einzelnen Bänden.

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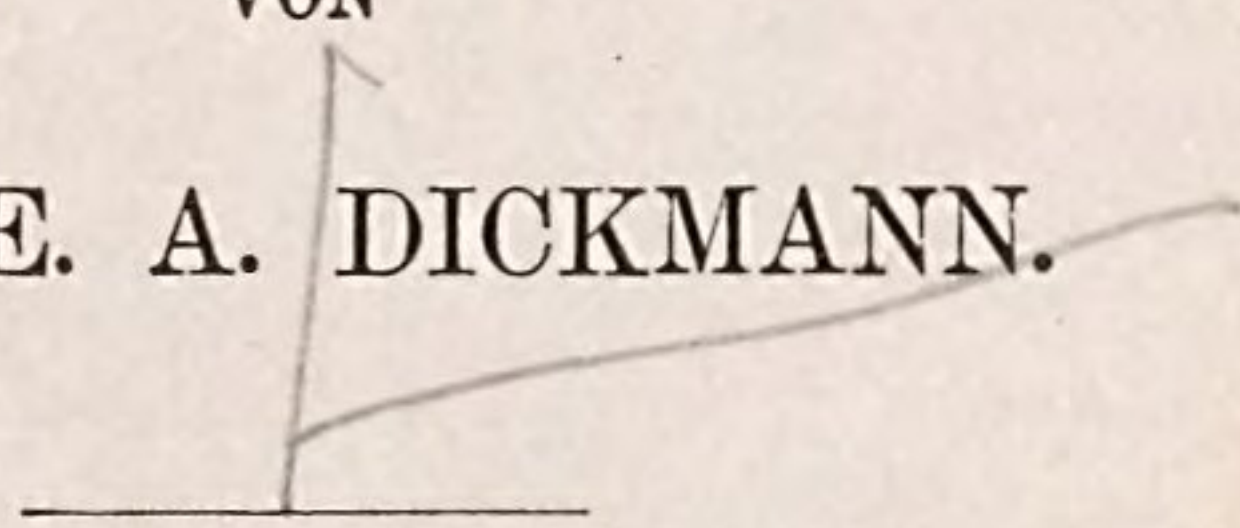
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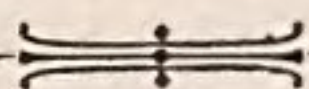
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REIHE A: PROSA.

BAND XXXII.

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ENGLISCH.  
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LEIPZIG 1896
RENGERSCHE BUCHHANDLUNG
GEBHARDT & WILISCH.

HISTORICAL BIOGRAPHIES

BY

[Samuel Rawson]

GARDINER.

FÜR DEN SCHULGEBRAUCH ERKLÄRT

VON

G. WOLPERT.

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DRITTE VERBESSERTE AUFLAGE.  
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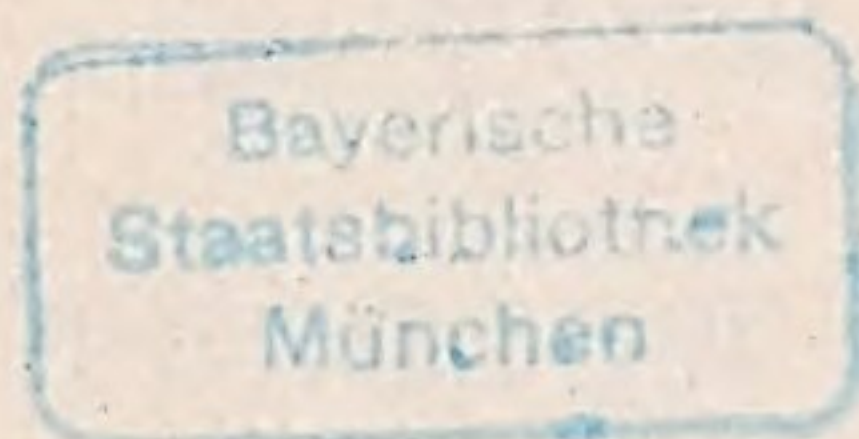
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LEIPZIG 1896

RENGERSCHE BUCHHANDLUNG

GEBHARDT & WILISCH.



Vorwort zur ersten Auflage.

Wem nicht unbekannt ist, welches Ansehen Gardiner als Geschichtschreiber in England genießt,* welches Lob man seinen geschichtlichen Werken wegen ihrer Gründlichkeit und unparteiischen Schilderung auch außerhalb seines Heimatlandes spendet, der wird es gerechtfertigt finden, daß einige seiner „Historical Biographies“ in der „Französischen und Englischen Schulbibliothek“ erscheinen. Unter den Biographien The Black Prince, Sir Thomas More, Sir Francis Drake, Oliver Cromwell, William III., sind die vorliegenden drei ausgewählt, welche den deutschen Schüler am meisten interessieren werden. Ich glaube, daß dieses Bändchen bei der Einfachheit und Klarheit der Sprache Gardiners eine passende Lektüre etwa für die Untersekunda bietet; der Text ist ein genauer Abdruck aus Gardiner.

AUGSBURG, 30. Juni 1886.

G. Wolpert,
Studienlehrer am k. Realgymnasium.

Vorwort zur zweiten Auflage.

Die zweite Auflage hat insofern eine Änderung erfahren, als die Anmerkungen vermehrt und ein Register zu denselben beigelegt wurde. Den Herren

* Gardiner (i. stumm) veröffentlichte: History of England from the Accession of James I. to the Outbreak of the Great Civil War; The First Two Stuarts u. a. Er war bis 1885 Professor der neueren Geschichte am King's College in London.

Dr. Dickmann, Direktor der Ober-Realschule zu Oldenburg i. Gr., und Oberlehrer Dr. Willenberg zu Lübben bin ich für ihre Mitteilungen zu besonderem Danke verpflichtet.

MÜNCHEN, im Juni 1892.

G. Wolpert,
Professor am k. Maximiliansgymnasium.

Vorwort zur dritten Auflage.

Die günstige Aufnahme, welche diesem Bändchen von seiten der Herren Fachgenossen zu teil wurde, hat nach verhältnismässig kurzer Zeit eine Neuauflage nötig gemacht, in der ich den Text einer sorgfältigen Durchsicht unterzog und die sachlichen Anmerkungen vielfach umarbeitete und vermehrte. Hierbei waren mir die von Herrn Direktor Dr. Dickmann in Oldenburg und Herrn Gymnasiallehrer Dr. Herlet in Bamberg gütigst gewordenen Mitteilungen, sowie das ausgezeichnete Buch von Prof. Dr. Wendt: „England. Seine Geschichte u. s. f.“ von größtem Werte.

MÜNCHEN, den 28. Januar 1896.

G. Wolpert,
Professor am k. Maximiliansgymnasium.

Druckfehler-Verzeichnis.

- Lies S. 3, Z. 13: *did* statt *dit*.
 „ S. 5, Z. 18: *gentleman* statt *gentlemen*.
 „ S. 17, Z. 24: *thoroughly* statt *thouroughly*.
 „ S. 41, Z. 21: *Armada* statt *Armanda*.
 „ S. 43, Z. 1: *who* statt *wo*.
 „ S. 44, Z. 1: *haughty* statt *haugthy*.

SIR THOMAS MORE.

THOMAS MORE, who was born in 1478, was the son of a successful lawyer. His father, who was anxious that the boy should be brought up to his own profession, sent him to school to learn Latin, and afterwards placed him, at the age when a young gentleman of our time would be still at school, in the household of Cardinal Morton. It was in those days the habit of people who could well afford to keep their children at home to send them to live in a great man's house, the boys to wait upon the master, 10 and the girls upon the mistress. In this way they learnt how to behave in a proper way, a lesson which it was very necessary to teach them at a time when manners amongst the mass of the people were more unrefined than they are now. 15

To be in the household of Cardinal Morton was a special privilege for the lad. Morton was a remarkable man, who, as chief minister to King Henry VII., was doing all he could to fill the king's treasury. When the taxes did not bring in as much money as 20 was wanted, the cardinal used to ask the wealthy citizens of London to make up the deficiency by giving presents to the king. If any one refused, the cardinal had two arguments ready, one or other of which he used to each of the citizens, so that these arguments 25 were commonly known as 'Cardinal Morton's fork.' If the citizen happened to live in a very economical way, he was told that he must have saved a large quantity

of money, and that he would therefore have something to spare for the king. If he lived in great state and splendour, he was told that this showed that he must be very rich, and must therefore have something to spare for the king. The citizens found it difficult to reply to these questions, and the cardinal succeeded in getting as much money as he wanted.

Morton, however, was much more than a mere collector of revenue. He was a shrewd and accomplished statesman, who had taken a leading part in the revolution which overthrew the House of York and placed the House of Tudor on the throne. He was the first to predict the future eminence of the boy who was entrusted to his charge. When plays were acted at Christmas time in the cardinal's hall, it often happened that the players were too dull to give amusement. Young More would on such occasions step forward, and, taking up a part which he invented on the spur of the moment, would delight the audience by his readiness and wit. 'This child waiting at table,' said Morton to the noblemen who dined with him, 'will prove a marvellous man.'

At the age of fourteen young More was sent by Morton to Oxford, according to the custom which then prevailed amongst bishops of paying the expenses of the education of promising young men.

Oxford was at that time a place where an intelligent lad would learn much that had not been thought of in the time of his father. Only very lately Greek had been studied at Oxford. There had been a hard struggle between the old men who thought that all learning in which they had not been instructed in their youth must be bad, and the young men who wanted to learn something new. Before More arrived the young men had prevailed, and Greek was now being taught at the University.

It is difficult for any of us now quite to understand what a change the study of Greek brought about in the end of the fifteenth century. At present there are thousands of persons in England who can enjoy the works of great writers, but who yet cannot

read any language but their own. No doubt, it is true that they lose much enjoyment by not being able to read great works in other languages, but at least they are able to study one of the noblest literatures upon earth. They can read Shakspeare and Milton, 5 Burke and Scott, in their own mother-tongue. When More was a boy no English writer of repute except Chaucer had as yet written anything, and Chaucer's language was even then not easy to understand without explanation, and at that time there was no one who 10 took the trouble to explain it. Even if men could read French, there was as yet no French literature, worth reading; and the great German writers did not begin to write till about 250 years later. Italian was the only language of modern Europe in which books that are 15 still held to be worth reading had then been written.

In learning Greek young More gained the power of reading some of the noblest poems and histories and philosophic writings which the world had seen, as well as of studying the New Testament in the lan- 20 guage in which it had been written. The pleasure of such study would be more than doubled if he could meet with friends and teachers who would lead him to understand the books that he read. Such a man he found in Colet, who was doing his best to discover 25 the plain meaning of the words of the New Testament. Young as More was, Colet loved him for his gentleness, as well as for his intelligence, and a friendship was formed between them which was not dissolved in later years. 30

More's stay at Oxford was not very long. His father was afraid lest, if he remained there, he might be disinclined to embark on the study of the law, to which he had destined him. The boy obeyed his father's summons to return home, probably not without 35 reluctance; and the next few years of his life were spent in legal studies in London. He became a lawyer, and in 1504, when he was only twenty-six years old, he was elected a member of the house of Commons.

The House of Commons was, in the reign of 40 Henry VII., a most loyal body. During the Wars of

the Roses, the nobles and the great landowners had had everything their own way. They had often done deeds of violence, and, by obtaining the selection of their own dependents as jurymen, had prevented those
5 who complained of their proceedings from obtaining justice in courts of law. Besides this, all who wished to live at peace with their neighbours were tired of the slaughter and misery caused by the civil wars, and were delighted when they found that Henry VII.
10 was able to secure peace and to keep the great nobles in order. In the house of Commons, therefore, the king was excessively popular, and the members were so much afraid of weakening his authority that they were inclined to let him have almost anything he
15 might ask for.

The Parliament in which More took his seat was requested by the king to grant an unusually large tax. Accustomed to do as they were bidden, the Commons were just about to vote that it should be paid, when
20 young More rose to oppose it. His reasons were favourably listened to, and the tax was refused. A courtier who told the king what had happened informed him that 'a beardless boy had disappointed all his purpose.' The king got in the end little more
25 than a quarter of the sum for which he had asked. As might be expected, he was exceedingly angry, and, not being able to punish More, he took his revenge by imprisoning his father on some pretext or other, and by not releasing him till he had paid a heavy
30 fine. More himself wisely kept out of Henry's way. He was now happier than in attending courts or parliaments. He devoted his time to his books and studies, and to the pleasant society of that wandering scholar, the Dutchman Erasmus, who full of wit and
35 wisdom, had made his acquaintance during a former visit to England.

These days of enforced retirement from the world were not without profit to More. He found time for something besides study. He learnt to think deeply

2. *everything*, ganz und gar.

on his own faults, and he filled his mind with the firm purpose to repent of his sins and to seek for Divine guidance to amend his life. To our eyes it would seem as if there had been but little to amend; but it is almost always true that those who seem to others the purest and the best are themselves the most conscious of their faults. It is the evil doer who imagines that he is without sin. It was probably from this time that More began secretly to wear a shirt of haircloth next his skin, to be a perpetual reminder to himself of his weaknesses and his errors. 5 10

More, however, had no thought of leaving the society of men. In the year after his first appearance in Parliament he married. A man who marries usually chooses for a wife the woman who pleases him best. It was characteristic of More that he allowed a different motive to guide him. He was a visitor at the house of a gentleman named Colt, who had three daughters, all good and honest girls. Of the three More preferred the second, yet he abstained from offering to marry her. He could not help thinking that the eldest would probably be very disappointed if her younger sister were married before her. This thought made him pity her, and soon pity grew to love. He married the eldest, and never had any reason to repent of his choice. 15 20 25

Gradually More had returned to the practice of his profession. Yet he can hardly have felt himself quite safe as long as Henry VII. lived. In 1509, however, the old king died, and More was ready heartily to welcome the new king, Henry VIII., and to congratulate him on his accession. 30

From Henry VIII. More and his friends expected much. Amongst the mass of Englishmen the new king was popular, because he was young and handsome, had a kind word or a jest for everybody, and held the first place in all athletic sports. More and his fellow-students knew that Henry VIII. was fond of learning, and that all who tried to dispel the ignorance which prevailed would be welcome to him. Of the darker side of his character they as yet knew nothing. 35 40

A year after Henry's accession Erasmus was staying as a visitor in More's house, where he composed a witty and satirical book, 'The Praise of Folly.' In this book is pointed out the foolishness of mankind
5 in general. Learned men, according to Erasmus spun out of their own brains the doctrines which they taught, whilst religious men had all sorts of fanciful ideas about a religious life, although they neglected the practice of faith and charity. Nor did Erasmus
10 shrink from attacking the great and powerful. 'It is the duty,' he put forward Folly as saying, 'of a true prince to seek the public, and not his own private, advantage. From the laws . . . he must not himself deviate by a finger's breadth. He is responsible for
15 the integrity of his officials and magistrates. By my aid'—Erasmus is still speaking in Folly's name—'Princes cast such cares as these to the winds, and care only for their own pleasure. They think they fill their position, if they hunt with diligence, if they can
20 make gain to themselves by the sale of offices and places, if they can daily devise new means of undermining the wealth of citizens and raking it into their exchequer, disguising the iniquity of such proceedings by some specious pretence and show of legality.'

25 Whilst Erasmus was thus, in the name of Folly, satirising the folly of his contemporaries, Colet, More's other friend, who was now Dean of St. Paul's, was giving up a large amount of his private property in founding St. Paul's school, in order that there should
30 be a place in London where boys might be trained in sound learning and religion, without being subjected to that brutal flogging which in those days fell to the lot even of the best-conducted children.

For some years after the accession of Henry VIII.,
35 More continued to live a quiet life. He was making a large fortune at the bar. He wrote a history of the reign of Richard III., a subject on which he must have learned much from the lips of his old master, Cardinal Morton. After his wife's death he was married
40 a second time to one who helped him to train his four motherless children. With those children he was

always happy, amusing them as well as teaching them. He was as ready to join them in a visit to their pet monkey as he was to lead them easily in the paths of knowledge. Yet, unobtrusive as his life was, he was not unobservant of passing affairs. There was 5 little in the course of politics which could have given him pleasure. Henry VIII., indeed, was still fond of the society of learned and thoughtful men, and he would take real delight when these men in conversation with himself argued in opposition to his opinions, 10 though he showed no mercy to those who attempted to thwart his will by stirring up his subjects against him. Henry VIII., as was said, knew a man when he saw him. Even when he was most imperious and most determined to have his own way, he did not 15 like a poor-spirited flatterer who had no mind of his own. Yet the way which he was taking was not the one in which More or Colet or Erasmus liked to see him. He had raked up the old claims of Edward III. to the crown of France, and had made war upon the 20 Continent in order to reconquer at least part of the territory which he claimed as his inheritance. But he was not so good a military commander as the Black Prince had been, and in his time France was far stronger than it had been in the days of Crecy and 25 Poitiers. He had met with very little success, and with much failure. To support this useless war he had persuaded Parliament to vote enormous taxes, which weighed heavily upon the poor as well as upon the rich. The condition of the poor was growing 30 worse and worse. An Act of Parliament renewed much of the Statute of Labourers, and directed that the wages of the labourers should be kept low. The small proprietors of land too were falling into poverty, and were being tempted to sell their property to 31 their richer neighbours. The purchasers formed large sheep farms, which they found to be excessively profitable, as the sale of wool at that time brought in much more money than that of corn. The former

7. *still, immer.* — 32. *Statute of Labourers, Arbeitspolizeigesetz.*

proprietors, as soon as they had spent the purchase-money of their land, were reduced to beggary, as there was but little manufacturing employment in England to which they could turn.

5 On all these misfortunes More meditated deeply. In 1515 and the following year he wrote a book in which he intended to point out the causes of the mischief and to suggest the remedies. He knew better than to write a dry political argument, which might
10 be full of wisdom, but which would not attract many readers. He preferred to interest as well as to instruct, and the 'Utopia,' as the book is called, is one that can be read with almost greater interest at the present day than at the time when it was written. Its title
15 'Utopia' is a Greek word meaning 'Nowhere,' and More, by choosing to discourse of people who lived in Nowhere, was able freely to express his opinion about the conduct of the people in England.

Even if the 'Utopia,' had contained no lessons
20 worth consideration, the thought which was in the writer's mind would have made it a remarkable work. The books which had been read by the Black Prince spoke of the world as if it had been made for kings and princes, knights and nobles. Peasants and artisans
25 were looked upon as having no rights. The fighting men of the time robbed or slew them without compunction, whilst the legislators did their best to cheat them out of the wages which they had duly earned. Those who in the reign of Richard II. took the part
30 of the poor, taught them to take vengeance on their tyrants, and asked where gentlemen were to be found when Adam und Eve were labouring with the spade and the distaff. More taught that the poor and the weak were the first object of the State's care, and
35 that a country where they were oppressed was in the worst possible condition. But he showed also that good government lies not in pulling down the strong, but in exalting the weak, and that in the mutual helpfulness of all sorts and conditions of men for the
40 common good, lay the true remedy for the misery which he saw around him.

In the happy country of Utopia war is detested, yet the inhabitants are careful to exercise themselves in arms. They are ready to fight for defence against invaders of their own land or that of their allies, or to deliver some other people from tyranny. In peace 5 every one is compelled to work, and is brought up to that kind of occupation for which he is most fitted. No one is allowed to be either idle or overworked. Nine hours in the day are assigned to work, and when that is over lectures are delivered, to which all persons 10 are encouraged to come for the improvement of their minds. All are trained in childhood by education to do their duty thoroughly. Idleness, as More thought, is the root of all evil, and every one should work either with his head or his hands, if not with both, 15 for the benefit of himself and the community to which he belongs. As to the religion of Utopia, no persecution is allowed. No one is to be punished for his religious opinions, so long as he contents himself with arguing with moderation in their favour. If, however, he argues 20 angrily and expresses his contempt for those who differ from him, he is to be banished, not as a despiser of religion, but as a seditious person and a raiser-up of dissension among the people.

Other things More wrote to show his dislike of 25 the practices of his own country. He argued that thieves, who in those days were punished with death, should rather be condemned to labour on public works. He complained, too, that soldiers, who in his time were hired when war was declared and turned off as 30 soon as peace was made, were certain to become thieves, for want of better employment.

The whole of the 'Utopia,' in fact, was an attack upon the existing condition of England. More wanted Henry VIII. to give up his unprofitable wars 35 and to turn his attention to the improvement of his subjects, to take care that the rich and powerful did not oppress the poor and weak, and that the laws should do justice to all, and should encourage learning and industry in all alike, in order that 40 every one might be capable of performing his part

in the public service and in benefiting his fellow-citizens.

Henry VIII. was a man who did many evil things in his life; but it is creditable to him that he was
5 not angry with More for his plain speech. Instead of wishing to punish him for his book, he sent for him frequently and urged him strongly to enter into his service. There were at this time reasons which made Henry wish to change his foreign policy. He
10 had found out that whilst he had been deluding himself with the idea of making conquests in France, his allies had been cheating him. He therefore offered to be on friendly terms with France, and he reduced his expenditure at home, so that More had reason to hope
15 that he had made a convert of the king, and that Henry meant to give up war and to attend to the wants of his own country. In 1518, More gave way, and entered the royal service. Henry's language was all that could be wished, and for the time, at least,
20 he was probably sincere. He begged More 'first to look to God, and after God to him.' The time was to come when he would send More to death because he obeyed this injunction.

For a while all seemed to go well with More, so
25 far as the king's favour could help him. He received the honour of knighthood, and became Sir Thomas More, and about the same time he was made a Privy Councillor. Henry was excessively fond of his conversation, and would scarcely allow him to visit his
30 home. So irksome did this absence from his wife and children become to More that he pretended to have grown dull, and ceased to speak so wittily as he had been accustomed to do. In this way only did he contrive to be allowed to spend some days at home.

35 Henry's favour never made More unmindful of his duty. In 1523 he was chosen Speaker of the House of Commons, a post which in those days was only given to some one recommended by the king.

27. *Privy Councillor*, Mitglied des Staatsrats. — 36. *Speaker*, Präsident.

It happened that Henry wished that the House of Commons should grant him a very large amount of money, and that Cardinal Wolsey, who was his chief minister, feared lest the Commons would refuse it. The cardinal, therefore, determined to come in person 5 to the House to demand the money. When he looked for an answer he found that none of the members were willing to reply. Turning to More, he required him to answer in the name of the rest. More cleverly excused himself by saying that, though he had been 10 chosen Speaker by the votes of all who were in the House, yet, except the wits of all of them could be put into his head, he was unfit to answer in so important a matter.

Wolsey after this rebuff had to content himself 15 with far less money than he had expected to get. Yet, though he could hardly have been well pleased, he commanded his temper, and spoke lightly of the matter. All he said to More was, 'Would to God you had been at Rome when I made you Speaker!' 20 More turned the cardinal's anger away with a soft answer. 'Your Grace not offended,' he replied, 'so would I, too, my lord.' It was the custom in those days that the king should reward a Speaker, after the end of a session, with a grant of 200*l*. Wolsey 25 wrote to Henry asking him not to abandon the usual practice in More's case. 'No man,' he wrote, 'could better deserve the same than he has done. I am the rather moved to put your highness in remembrance thereof because he is not the most ready to speak and 30 solicit his own cause.'

Still, though Wolsey was civil to More, he would, no doubt, have been glad to get him out of the way, and he asked the king to send him ambassador to Spain. When Henry told him what was proposed, 35 More answered that he was ready to obey the king, but that he was sure that the climate of Spain would not agree with him, and that he should not live long in it. Henry, who probably had no wish to lose More's

28. *the same*, d. h. a grant of 200 *l*.

company, at once told him that it was not his pleasure to do him harm, and that he would find some other service for him.

From this time More had no lack of employment.
 5 On one occasion he was sent ambassador to France in conjunction with Wolsey. It was probably in this embassy that Wolsey asked his opinion about a treaty which he had drawn up. He expected nothing but praise, and when More began to criticise it he in-
 10 terrupted him angrily. 'Thou art the veriest fool,' said the cardinal, 'of all the council.' More was not to be provoked even by so rude an insult. 'God be thanked,' he answered, 'the king our master hath but one fool in his council!'

15 Higher preferment was in store. In 1529 Wolsey fell from power. Henry, who was tired of his wife, Catherine of Aragon, wanted to show that he had never been lawfully married to her, in order that he might marry a young lady named Anne Boleyn,
 20 with whom he had fallen in love. As the pope, whose consent Henry wished to obtain, put off his decision as long as he possibly could, the king grew impatient, and wished to get what he wanted even without the pope's consent. Wolsey could not help him in this.
 25 He was Lord Chancellor of England, and the chief minister of the King of England; but he was also Archbishop of York, and a cardinal, and was, therefore, unwilling to set the pope at defiance. Henry, whose imperious will was irritated by his minister's
 30 refusal to help him, not only dismissed him from his offices, but accused him of various offences, and stripped him of all his property. He was about to bring still graver charges against him, when Wolsey died. 'If I had served my God,' he said before his death, 'as
 35 diligently as I have served the king, He would not have given me over in my grey hairs.' Then after a little talk about his devotion to Henry's interests, he

13. *hath* = has; die alte Endung *eth* (-th) statt -s findet sich auch jetzt noch zuweilen in der Poesie und in der feierlichen Rede.

added words which painted his selfwilled master to the life. 'He is a prince,' he said, 'of royal courage, and hath a princely heart; and rather than he will miss or want part of his appetite he will hazard the loss of one half of his kingdom. I assure you I have 5 often kneeled before him in his privy chamber, the space of an hour or two, to persuade him from his will and appetite but I could never dissuade him.'

More was soon to experience the truth of Wolsey's dying words. He now sat in Wolsey's seat as Lord 10 Chancellor. Only once before, since there had been Lord Chancellors, had a layman been advanced to that high office, and then he had been deposed after a short time as incompetent to fill the place. There was no danger of that now. More's abilities and 15 learning made him capable of fulfilling any duty that he undertook, and his courtesy and modesty made him generally popular, and contrasted favourably with the harshness and arrogance of his predecessor.

One practice of the new Chancellor attracted 20 attention even in an age when children paid far more outward respect to their parents than they do now. More's father was still alive, and was one of the Judges of the Court of King's Bench. Every day, before Sir Thomas took his seat in Chancery, he 25 turned aside to the court in which the old man, whose judicial office was inferior to his own, sat to administer justice. There he knelt humbly down, craving a father's blessing on himself and on the work that he had to do. 30

In another respect, too, his conduct appeared to his contemporaries to be unusual. Judges were not then scrupulous in accepting bribes and in favouring rich men at the expense of the poor. More was always as ready to do justice to a poor man as to a 35 rich one. He strove to the uttermost to do right without respect of persons. If, he once said, his father stood on one side and the devil on the other, he would give judgment in favour of the devil if his cause were

good. One of his sons-in-law, a Mr. Heron, presuming on his connection with the Chancellor, refused to come to a reasonable compromise with his opponent, and was much surprised when More pronounced a decree
 5 against him by which he lost all that he had claimed. On another occasion a rich widow sent him as a New Year's gift a pair of gloves, into which she had stuffed forty pounds. More emptied the gloves into her lap, telling her that, as it was against good manners to
 10 refuse a gentlewoman's New Year's gift, he would take her gloves, but not her money.

During the time of his chancellorship More had matters to consider of greater importance even than the right of suitors to the possession of property.
 15 Protestant opinions were being disseminated in private and by pamphlets, and some of those who held these opinions were very abusive in their language and uncharitable in their hearts. More had in his 'Utopia' spoken in praise of a system in which persons hold-
 20 ing different religious opinions were allowed to live peaceably together, joining in a form of prayer which expressed the thoughts which were common to all. This, at least, was not what he saw before him. The Protestant did not ask to hold their own opinions
 25 whilst they respected those of their neighbours. They declared that their opinions were the only true ones, and many of them denounced all others with great bitterness. More therefore thought himself justified in attempting to put down Protestantism by persecuting
 30 the Protestants, and did not see that he was doing anything at all inconsistent with that which he had written in the 'Utopia.'

In less than three years after he became Lord Chancellor, More resigned the office. The king had
 35 been doing many things which More disliked, and by the spring of 1532 the chancellor knew that Henry meant to settle the question of his own divorce without the pope's consent. To do this, it would be necessary for him to throw off the pope's authority, and though

35. *by, gegen.*

Henry professed that he did not intend to alter religion in any way, More knew him too well to trust him. He never doubted that Henry would always do whatever suited his own interest at the time. One day, some years before, after Henry had shown him the unusual favour of visiting him in his house at Chelsea, and had even walked about the garden with his arm round his neck, More was congratulated by his son-in-law Roper on such a display of favour. 'I thank our Lord,' was his reply, 'I find his Grace my very good lord indeed, and I believe he doth as singularly affect me as any subject within this realm; howbeit, son Roper, I may tell thee I have no cause to be proud thereof, for if my head would win a castle in France it would not fail to go.' More felt that if such a king as this were to do as he pleased in the Church as well as in the State, it would be better for himself to be in a private station, in which he would have no responsibility for anything that was being done.

More lived for a while quietly in the midst of his family, taking no part in public affairs. If Henry could have been content with his silence, all would have been well. But silence was not enough for Henry. He had done as he had determined to do: he had cast off the authority of the pope, and he had married Anne Boleyn. He wished to have More's clear head and ready tongue on his side. When he found that More was not to be won over he conceived a hatred for the man whom he had once admired so much, and whose quiet refusal to say that those things were right which he believed to have been wrong was a testimony against him. One day the Duke of Norfolk tried to gain More over to satisfy the king. 'It is perilous striving with princes,' said the duke, 'for the king's wrath is death.' 'Is that all, my lord?' answered More with a smile. 'Is there, in good faith, no more difference between your Grace and me but that I shall die to-day and you to-morrow?'

It was not long before More's confidence was put to the test. In 1534 Parliament, to please the king, passed an Act of Succession, declaring that Henry's

marriage with Catherine was null and void, and that his marriage with Anne was good and lawful. The right of succeeding to the throne, therefore, was to go to any children he might have by Anne, and not
5 to Mary, his daughter by Catherine. If the Act had contained no more than this, Sir Thomas More would have been willing to submit to it. As long as it remained unrepealed he would have been ready to obey any future king or queen who might ascend the
10 throne in virtue of its provisions. For he held, as most men did then, that an Act of Parliament could alter the succession — that is to say, that if King, Lords, and Commons combined to declare that any one, whether the child of the king or not, were to be re-
15 garded as the heir, it would be the duty of all subjects, to obey him as their sovereign as soon as the throne was vacant. But the Act contained more than this. It directed that an oath should be taken by all the king's subjects to maintain the Act; and though
20 More was ready to swear to obey that part of it which related to the succession, he refused to swear to defend that part of it which declared the king's marriage with his first wife to have been void. He was summoned to Lambeth from his home at Chelsea
25 in order that he might take the oath. Before this, whenever he left his house he liked his children to accompany him to the boat, so that he might kiss them all before stepping in. This time he allowed none of them to follow him, taking with him only
30 Roper, his favourite son-in-law, the husband of his daughter Margaret. As they were being rowed down the river he sat meditatively pondering the arguments for and against the oath. He was not long in putting away the temptation of doing as others did. 'Son
35 Roper,' he said, 'I thank our Lord the field is won.' What he meant Roper did not understand, nor did More explain. No one will need explanation now. More had won a victory over his weakness, that weakness which is in the heart of even the strongest
40 and the best. When he reached Lambeth he refused the oath, and was sent to the Tower. No prisoner

in that gloomy abode was ever less discontented with his captivity. 'Assure yourself,' he said jestingly to his gaoler, who expressed a wish that he could entertain him with better cheer; 'I do not mislike my cheer, but whenever I so do then thrust me out of 5 your doors.' More serious were his words to his daughter when she came to visit him. 'I believe, Meg,' he said, 'that they that have put me here ween they have done me a high displeasure. But I assure you, on my faith, my own dear daughter, if it had 10 not been for my wife and you that be my children, whom I account the chief part of my charge, I would not have failed, long ere this, to have closed myself in as strait a room, and straiter, too.' A cell in a monastery would, no doubt, have suited his inclination 15 better than the court of his headstrong and imperious master. 'But since,' he continued, 'I come hither without mine own desert, I trust that God of His goodness will discharge me of my care, and with His gracious help supply my want among you. I find no 20 cause, I thank God, Meg, to reckon myself in worse case here than in mine own house: for methinketh God maketh me a wanton, and setteth me on His lap and dandleth me.' Few men have so thoroughly learnt as More had the meaning of the words, 'Whom God 25 loveth He chasteneth.' Many years before, whenever his wife or one of his children was ill or in trouble, he had been in the habit of reminding the sufferer that that which they endured was for their good. 'We may not,' he said on one occasion, 'look at our 30 pleasure to go to heaven in feather beds. It is not the way. For our Lord Himself went thither with great pain, and by many tribulations; which is the path wherein He walked thither, and the servant may not look to be in better case than his Master.' The 35 time had now arrived for him to show that his exhortations came indeed from his heart. After he had

8. *Meg*, Meggy, Mag = Margaret. — 11. *be* = are. I be, thou beest, he be (we ben, we bin) etc., war früher auch Indikativ. — 22, 23. *methinketh*, *maketh* etc. vgl. S. 12, 13.

remained in the Tower for more than a year, a new Act of Parliament was passed entitling the king supreme head on earth of the Church of England, and imposing the penalties of high treason on any one
 5 who disputed the appellation. As More was not likely to speak on the subject if left to himself, Rich, the Solicitor-General, was sent to entangle him in his talk, and by engaging him in conversation he led him on inadvertently to use words which, if Rich is to be
 10 believed, amounted to a denial that Parliament had any right to give such a title to the king. As, however, More denied having said this, it may well be believed that Rich either invented the words, or at least quoted them incorrectly.

15 More was brought to trial as a traitor, on the accusation of Rich. Nothing that he could say availed him, and he was sentenced to die. When he was brought back to the Tower after his trial he found his daughter Margaret Roper, waiting for him. Running
 20 forward through the guard, she threw her arms round his neck and kissed him. He gave her his blessing, and comforted her with loving words. After this she left him, intending to return home; but she had not gone far when, being 'not satisfied with the former
 25 sight of her dear father, having respect neither to herself nor to the press of the people and multitude that were about him, she suddenly turned back again, and ran to him as before, took him about the neck, and divers times together most lovingly kissed him,
 30 and at last with a full, heavy heart was fain to depart from him; the beholding whereof was to many of them that were present thereat so lamentable that it made them to mourn and weep for very sorrow.'

The affection of More's daughter must have en-
 35 deared her the more to him as his second wife had no sympathy with him. She was an active woman, capable of managing his household well, but utterly

32. *it made them to mourn and weep for*; nach to make steht in gewählter Sprache meistens der Infinitiv mit to, wenn das Subjekt des Infinitivs nicht ein persönliches Fürwort ist.

unable even to comprehend her husband's high and noble thoughts, and imagining, after the fashion of such worldly and vulgar natures as hers, that he was but a silly dreamer for despising the comfortable things of the world. Once in the course of his imprisonment she had come to see him. 'I marvel,' she said, 'that you that have been always hitherto taken for so wise a man will now so play the fool as to lie here in this close filthy prison, and be content to be shut up among mice and rats, when you might be abroad at your liberty, and with the favour and good will both of the king and his council, if you would but do as the bishops and best learned of this realm have done. And seeing you have at Chelsea a right fair house, your library, your books, your gallery, your orchards, and all other necessities so handsomely about you, where you might, in the company of me, your wife, your children, and household, be merry, I wonder what you mean here still thus fondly to tarry.' More smiled at talk like this. 'I pray thee,' he said, 'good Mrs. Alice, tell me one thing.' 'What is that?' inquired the self-satisfied lady. The answer of her husband was ready. 'Is not this house,' he said, 'as nigh heaven as mine own?' Such a question only made the poor woman angry, and it was well for More that in his last hours the dying Christian was not troubled with her presence.

More had not to wait many days for the death for which he had long made himself ready. In the morning of the day appointed for his execution his friend Sir Thomas Pope came to inform him that everything was prepared. 'For your good tidings,' said More, cheerfully, 'I most heartily thank you. I have been always bounden much to the king's Highness for the benefits and honours which he hath still from time to time most bountifully heaped upon me; and yet more bounden I am to his Grace for putting me into this place, where I have had convenient time

34. *bounden* steht für bound; jetzt wird es fast nur noch attributiv in der Redensart gebraucht: it is our bounden duty.

and space to have remembrance of my end; and, most of all, am I bound to his Highness that it pleased him so shortly to rid me of the miseries of this wretched world; and therefore will I not fail most
5 earnestly to pray for his Grace both here and in another world.' Pope then warned him from the king not to use many words. The king was afraid that he would say something which would encourage the spectators to resist his assumption of the new title.
10 More assured Pope that he would conform to the king's wish, and that he had never had any intention of saying anything which would give offence. In taking leave of his old friend, Pope could not refrain from tears. 'Quiet yourself,' said More, 'and be not discom-
15 forted. For I trust that we shall once in heaven see each other full merrily, where we shall be sure to live and love together in joyful bliss eternally.' As soon as Pope had left him, More dressed himself in his best clothes, as if he had been going to a feast.
20 The custom of the time was that the dress in which a man was executed became the perquisite of the executioner, and More wished to testify in this way his thankfulness to the man who was to deliver him from the miseries of the world. In the end, however,
25 he was persuaded to clothe himself in less gorgeous attire, but he sent the man a piece of gold to make up for the loss.

The time was now come when the former Lord Chancellor of England was led out to die. His old
30 wit had no more left him than his old faith and confidence in the protection of God. 'I pray you,' he said, when he reached the steps of the scaffold, 'see me safe up, and for my coming down let me shift for myself.' When he had mounted he adressed a few
35 words to the crowd around, and then kneeled down to pray. Then rising, he turned to the executioner. 'Pluck up thy spirits, man,' he said, 'and be not afraid to do thine office. My neck is very short; take heed that thou cut not awry.' He then bound a cloth
40 over his eyes, and, again kneeling down, placed his neck on the block. Once more he raised his head to

move his beard out of the groove which was left for his neck. 'Pity,' he said, 'that should be cut, that has not committed treason.' These strange words were the last that he ever spoke. He died upon the scaffold because he nobly refused to declare that to be true 5 which he believed to be untrue. Many another was to follow him in that path. For many years to come men who believed what More believed were to perish on the scaffold, and men who believed what More disbelieved were to perish at the stake. Every one 10 who thus testified with his blood against the force which imagines that it is justified in trampling on the rights of conscience, is to be held in honour by later generations who are no longer threatened with such oppression. Those who think that More was right in 15 what he believed, and those who think that he was wrong, can agree in venerating the martyr who died for conscience' sake. Of all who perished by violence in the conflict of the sixteenth century, there was none so gentle, so wise, so heroic, as Thomas More. 20

SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.

FRANCIS DRAKE, like many others, of the great sailors of Elizabeth's reign, was born of a Devonshire family. His father, who lived near Tavistock, had become a Protestant in the time of Henry VIII., and
5 had left his home to escape persecution. He took up his abode in the hull of an old ship lying in the Medway. There, when Edward VI. became king, and Protestants were no longer oppressed, he used to give religious instruction to the sailors of the king's ships
10 at Chatham, and subsequently received ordination.

Of his many sons, only one achieved distinction. When Francis Drake was still quite young he was apprenticed to the owner of a small coasting vessel which sometimes crossed the sea to the Netherlands
15 or to France. The boy's life was no doubt a hard one, but he did his duty so well that his master, when he was dying, bequeathed to him the vessel in which they had for some years sailed together.

For some time Drake plied his trade diligently,
20 as his master had done before him. But it was hardly likely that he would be long content with the dull routine of a trading voyage. In the beginning of the reign of Elizabeth the minds of adventurous youths were beginning to be set upon America. The America
25 of which they were thinking was not the long stretch of coast which is now inhabited by our Transatlantic kinsmen, and still less those vast prairies which seem likely to afford sustenance in the not far distant future

to many millions of our race. All these lands were as yet unknown to Europeans. It was in tropical America that the Spaniards had fought and settled. They had conquered Mexico and Peru, rich in seemingly endless stores of gold, and had seized upon the West India Islands and the coasts around the Gulf of Mexico. English boys who heard of the doings of the Spanish conquerors longed to imitate their exploits, or at least to trade in a part of the world which was offering such golden rewards. They were not likely to be deterred by the undoubted danger of the attempt. The King of Spain claimed all the New World as his own, except a part which belonged to the King of Portugal. Only Spaniards and Portuguese had hitherto landed on the shores of tropical America; and once, when the two nations seemed likely to quarrel, they had applied to the Pope to mediate between them. The Pope had weighed their claims, and had assigned Brazil to Portugal, and all the rest of America to Spain. The Spaniards consequently affirmed that, by the Pope's decision, they were justified in excluding all other nations from the coasts of America. An Englishman, therefore, who, even with the intention of carrying on an honest trade, attempted to sail to the West Indies, would do so at his peril.

To young Drake this peril was attractive. He sold his own vessel, and in 1565, when Elizabeth had been on the throne for nearly seven years, he first crossed the Atlantic, under the command of Captain Lovel. Of the circumstances of that voyage nothing is known. In 1567 he was trusted by John Hawkins with the command of the 'Judith,' a vessel which was to form part of a fleet about to sail under Hawkins to the West Indies.

Hawkins was a good seaman, and a brave man. His object was one with which no Englishman would at the present time have anything to do. He intended to capture inoffensive negroes on the coast of Africa, and to sell them to the Spanish planters in the West Indies. Such a traffic, undoubtedly lucrative, was in those days considered as not dishonourable. The

Queen herself lent Hawkins a large ship, and bargained for some of the profits of the undertaking. As in a former voyage he had been the first Englishman to carry black slaves across the Atlantic, she had already
5 granted him the right of bearing on his coat-of-arms three busts of negroes bound by a cord. It was therefore under high patronage that Hawkins sailed. When he reached the African coast, he had some difficulty in securing his prisoners. The negroes defended them-
10 selves with poisoned arrows, and most of the Englishmen who were wounded died of lock-jaw, produced by the poison. Yet a large number of slaves were soon captured, and conveyed across the ocean. Nothing sounds stranger to our ears than the pious expressions
15 of these sailors who were engaged on such villainous work. One of them, in a former voyage of the same kind, ascribed a favourable wind, which sprung up after they had been suffering from a long calm, to the mercy of 'Almighty God, who never suffers His elect
20 to perish.' It was not that the man who used this expression stifled the promptings of his conscience. He never fancied that he had done any more wrong in carrying black men to work in the West Indies, than he would have done if he had brought over
25 horses from the Continent to drag ploughs in England.

When Hawkins arrived on the other side of the Atlantic, he had not much difficulty in disposing of his slaves. The Spanish authorities no doubt had strict orders to stop his proceedings; but the Spanish
30 planters were as eager to buy slaves as he was to sell them, and, by using threats of violence, he overcame the opposition of the officials, and succeeded in getting rid of most of his negroes. At last he put into the harbour of St. Juan d'Ulloa, to refit his ships,
35 and to sell the remainder of his slaves. He had with him but three vessels, the largest of which was of only one hundred tons. The value of the gold and silver and precious stones for which he had bartered his negroes was reckoned at 1,800,000*l*.

40 By ill luck, before Hawkins was ready to sail, a Spanish admiral arrived at the port, with thirteen

large ships. After a delay of three days, the Spaniards fell upon the little English squadron. After a brave resistance, Hawkins was forced to abandon his own ship. Drake's vessel, the 'Judith,' and its smaller companion, the little 'Minion,' alone escaped. They 5 had been much shattered in the fight, and their scanty stock of provisions was insufficient to support the crowd which had come to them with Hawkins. A hundred men were put on shore to take their chance, and of the remainder, those who did not sicken and 10 die on the way at last reached England in a miserable condition.

Drake had thus learned by bitter experience what were the perils to which Englishmen were exposed in Spanish waters. He came back, more resolved 15 than ever to repeat his effort. In him, as in so many of his countrymen, the search for gain seemed to be only a small part of a nobler enterprise. To win wealth in the West Indies would be a means of humbling the power of Spain. Already Englishmen 20 were beginning to regard Spain as their great antagonist. The Spanish king was no weak enemy. He ruled over a large part of Europe outside the limits of the Peninsula, as well as over the greater part of the New World. He had at his disposal the largest 25 and finest army, and the largest and finest navy in the world. England had no regular army at all, and a very small navy. Its trade was not great. Ships of commerce were not larger than the coasting vessels of the present day. In spite of all these disadvantages, 30 there was no shrinking from the struggle. The hardy mariners of England flew instinctively, like bull-dogs, at the Spanish power. With the pride of patriotism was mingled a growing hatred of Spain, as the main protector of the Roman Catholic Church. When English 35 Protestant sailors were captured by the Spaniards, they were often handed over to the Inquisition—a Spanish court which had been instituted to put an end to all differences of religious opinion wherever Spain ruled. By that court they were imprisoned, 40 ill-treated, often tortured, sometimes put to death.

Their comrades who were still at large burnt to avenge them; and regarded themselves as doing a good work for God, as well as for their Queen, when they slew Spaniards, sacked or burnt their towns, and
5 carried off their wealth. They acted like pirates, and believed themselves to be in some way the champions of the gospel.

Of Drake it may be said, as has been said of the Black Prince, that if he shared in the ordinary morality
10 of his class and age, he himself showed that morality at its best. He was courteous whenever it was possible to show courtesy. His own experience of the slave trade sickened him. It is true that he did nothing to warn others against it; but he never again
15 took part in the kidnapping of his fellow-creatures. In 1570 and 1571 he was again in the West Indies, gaining knowledge of their seas and shores. In 1572, the year in which the Dutch Republic was founded, Drake sailed once more from Plymouth for the West
20 Indies. He had but two little vessels, his own, the 'Pasha,' of seventy tons, and the 'Swan,' of but twenty-five, under his brother's command, and with only seventy-three men he set out for Nombre de Dios.

That Nombre de Dios should be the object of
25 Drake's voyage showed that he had no thought of merely following Hawkins's example, and of trafficking with the planters of the islands. Nombre de Dios was the name of the port on the Atlantic side of the Isthmus of Panama, to which the gold and silver dug
30 out of the mines of Peru was brought on the backs of mules to be shipped for Spain. There was no open war between England and Spain, but Drake held that he had a full right to make reprisals for the loss of his goods at St. Juan d'Ulloa, and to revenge the
35 ill-treatment of the English captives. Soon after he arrived on the coast of South-America, he was joined by another English vessel commanded by Captain Rawse, which had already taken a Spanish vessel. Leaving these and his own two ships to the care of
40 Rawse, he set off with four boats, loaded with men. About midnight he was not far from Nombre de Dios.

There he stopped till he could see his way in. He soon discovered that his men, who would have been quite ready to face armed Spaniards whom they could see, were growing anxious and uneasy in the dark. They began to talk to one another about the great 5 size of the town, and the danger of attacking it. If these men were left to discourage one another much longer they would be fit for nothing in the morning. Drake was always full of resource, and when he saw the sky whitening from the light of the tropical moon 10 before it rose above the horizon, he assured his sailors that the day was already breaking, and gave the word to pull on. At three in the morning he leaped on shore with the greater part of his men. The Spaniards, roused from sleep, made the best fight 15 that they could: but the English sailors pressed on to the Governor's house, where they found in a lower room a pile of silver bars heaped up against the wall. Drake did not suffer them to tarry there. He led them to the king's treasure-house, where the gold and 20 jewels were stored. 'I have now,' he said, 'brought you to the mouth of the treasury of the world. If you do not gain it, none but yourselves are to be blamed.' He bade his brother break open the door whilst he himself remained in the marketplace to 25 guard the approaches to the place. Scarcely had he given the orders when he staggered forwards and fell. He had concealed as long as he could a wound which he had received in the fight, and he was now faint from loss of blood. The men gathered round him, and 30 bound up his wounds, begging him to return to the boats. Upon his refusal they seized upon him by force and carried him down to the beach. Without their captain they could do nothing. Some booty, indeed, they took, but they did not venture to tarry 35 without their leader, and the treasury of the world remained unrifled.

By this time the Spaniards were everywhere talking of the prowess of the Englishmen. The stories which were told were sometimes very strange. One 40 Spaniard, who was taken prisoner by Drake, had been

informed that the English employed poisoned arrows, and asked if any remedy for the poison was known. 'It is never my custom,' replied Drake, 'to poison arrows. Their wounds may be cured by ordinary
5 remedies. I only want for myself and my company some of that excellent commodity, gold and silver. I am resolved, by the help of God, to reap some of the golden harvest which you have got out of the earth and send to Spain to trouble the earth.' It was
10 Drake's conviction that the gold and silver which the King of Spain used to pay the armies with which he oppressed other nations would be used to better purpose by himself and his sailors.

After his failure at Nombre de Dios, Drake took
15 one or two prizes. Then Captain Rawse left him and sailed home. By this time the Spaniards were on his track, and he thought it no longer safe to keep the sea with his two small vessels. One, he thought, could be more easily put out of sight than two. Yet
20 he did not think that his brother, who was captain of the little 'Swan,' would be ready to give up his ship to be destroyed. He therefore sent for the carpenter and bade him go down into the hold at night and to bore three holes in the bottom of the ship
25 with a large gimlet. The next day, much to the astonishment of the crew, their ship began to settle down in the water. Drake then persuaded them to set her on fire, and took them all on board his own ship. After anchoring her in a bay which was not
30 likely to be visited, and leaving his brother in charge of her, he himself set out in the boats with the greater part of his crew. After many adventures he landed his men with the intention of waylaying the train of mules which bore the gold and silver from Panama
35 to Nombre de Dios. He took with him a large number of Indians, who were hostile to the Spaniards, and who were consequently delighted to find such a leader. This time, however, Drake was unsuccessful. After he had placed his men in ambush behind the bushes, in
40 order to surprise the muleteers who brought the treasure, one of his men who was not quite sober

jumped up to look at a Spanish horseman riding by. The horseman gave the alarm, and the mules were driven by another road.

Not long afterwards, whilst Drake was still on the Isthmus of Panama, one of the friendly Indians 5 showed him a very high tree, and invited him to ascend it. Notches had been cut in the trunk by the Indians to make it easy to climb up, and planks had been laid on the branches above, forming a kind of 10 arbour large enough for twelve men to sit in. When Drake reached the arbour the Indians pointed to the South, where the bright waves of the Pacific were glancing in the sun. To any of us such a sight would be one not easily to be forgotten, although those waters are crossed by thousands of English sailors every year. 15 When Drake first saw the Pacific no English vessel had ever floated upon it. To him it was a mysterious ocean, from the shores of which came those stores of precious things of which he had seen a sample in the treasure-house of the world at Nombre de Dios. He 20 threw himself on his knees and solemnly prayed to God to give him life and leave once to sail an English ship in those seas.

The time would come when his wishes would be fulfilled. His present object was to regain his own 25 vessel, which he had left on the Atlantic coast. On the way he intercepted a train of fifty mules, laden with gold and silver, of which his men carried off as much as they could. After some adventures Drake found himself once more on board his own ship, with 30 which he returned to England after an absence of rather more than a year and two months. So strange was it then to hear of a ship returning from the West Indies, that when Drake arrived at Plymouth on a Sunday morning, the people all ran out of church, 35 to witness the blessing of God as the old writer tells us, upon the dangerous adventures and enterprises of the captain.

Five years passed away before Drake saw the wish of his heart fulfilled in the sailing of an English 40 ship in those southern seas which he had descried

from the tree-top on the Isthmus of Panama. At last, in 1577, he sailed again. He had with him five small vessels, of which his own, the 'Pelican,' was of no more than 100 tons burthen, whilst the smallest was
 5 but a pinnace of 15 tons. Yet they were all good sailors, well fitted with everything necessary for a long voyage, and well armed to fight the Spaniards, if they met them. Every man on board knew that he would be immediately put to death by the King of
 10 Spain's officers, if he fell into their hands.

There was still no actual war between Spain and England; but amongst English sailors there was now a firm belief that to attack the Spaniards beyond the Atlantic was, even in time of peace, a meritorious act.
 15 'The main ocean,' wrote Drake's chaplain, when he afterwards recorded the history of this voyage, 'by right is the Lord's alone, and by nature left free for all men to deal withal, as very sufficient for all men's use, and large enough for all men's industry.' It was
 20 because the Spaniards refused permission to the English to traffic in their waters, that Drake believed that what the Spaniards very naturally called piracy was a praiseworthy action.

At Port St. Julian, in Patagonia, Drake had to
 25 maintain discipline at the expense of his feelings. Thomas Doughty, a man who stood high in Drake's favour, was found guilty of insubordination and mutiny. Drake laid his case before twelve of his principal comrades, whom he called together to act as a jury.
 30 By these men Doughty was found guilty, and Drake sentenced him to death. Before the execution the two men received the communion together, after which Doughty was executed. After that no one could expect a lenient treatment if he disobeyed his commander.

35 Before the Pacific could be reached, it was necessary to pass through the Straits of Magellan, so named from the Portuguese commander of the only

18. *withal* ist jetzt nur als Adverb gebräuchlich; früher war es auch Praeposition (= with) und stand gewöhnlich am Ende des Satzes.

ship which had ever passed through them before. Drake did not know that it was possible to sail round Cape Horn. He did not even know that such a cape existed, as it was supposed in his time that Tierra del Fuego was only the north end of a continent which reached to the South Pole, and that unless a vessel passed through the Straits of Magellan it could not reach the Pacific at all. 5

The navigation of these Straits was not easy. They were narrow and winding, and gusts of wind swept down suddenly from the hills on either side. Drake had no charts by which to direct his course, yet in sixteen days he found himself safely at the western end of the Straits. No sooner had he entered the Pacific, when a terrible gale arose. Of the five vessels of which the expedition was composed when it left England, one had sunk at sea, and one had been left behind at Port St. Julian. One of the remaining three was now lost, and the captain of another had deserted his admiral, and, fearing to encounter the perils of the unknown ocean, had slunk back to England through the Straits of Magellan. When the storm had abated Drake's 'Pelican' was alone. 15 20

Drake ranged up the western coast of South America. Finding a good landing-place he went ashore with a boat's crew to fill his water-casks. As he reached the shore with one of his men, four or five hundred Indians sprang out from behind the rocks. Unluckily one of the crew called out in Spanish that they had only come for water. The Indians at once took them for Spaniards, whom they hated bitterly, and discharged a flight of arrows at them. Drake and nine of his men were wounded. Afterwards all who were hurt recovered from their wounds, though they had no medical attendance, the surgeon of their ship having died at sea. 25 30 35

These Indians, as Drake's chaplain Fletcher tells us, in an account of the voyage which he wrote after his return, worshipped a god whom they called Setebos. No doubt Shakspeare had read this book when he wrote 'The Tempest,' and called Caliban's god Setebos. 40



Drake was inclined to pity the Indians, who, after all, had been so ill-treated by the Spaniards that their conduct was very excusable. At the next place at which he stopped he found an Indian dressed in a long white gown. 'In him,' wrote the historian of the voyage, 'we might see a most lively pattern of the harmless disposition of that people; and how grievous a thing it is that they should by any means be so abused as all those are whom the Spaniards have any command over!' Drake treated him so well that his tribesmen came down to the beach with chickens and eggs and a pig, and offered to lend the Englishmen a pilot to guide their vessel on its way.

Drake's next object was to reach Valparaiso, the

port where men and goods were landed for Santiago, the capital of the Spanish province of Chili. There he found a large ship, the crew of which never heeded him as he sailed into the harbour. The notion never entered into their minds that it was possible for any 5 ship but a Spanish one to sail on the waters of the Pacific. They were soon undeceived. The 'Pelican' ranged up by the side of the Spanish vessel, and her English crew leaped over the bulwarks. 'Down, you dog!' shouted Francis Drake, as he struck down the 10 first Spaniard who met him. The ship was soon taken, and Drake first sacked the town, and then, when he got his prize out to sea, rifled the hold. He found on board good store of wine, and ingots of gold worth nearly 20,000*l*. 15

Drake's next venture was not so successful. He had scarcely landed, when he espied about a hundred Spaniards on horseback, followed by twice the number of Indians, 'running as dogs at their heels, all naked, and in most miserable bondage.' He hastened away, 20 but one of his men lingered behind the rest, and was shot dead. The Spaniards cut off his head and hands, and made their Indians shoot arrows at his mutilated trunk in the sight of his comrades. No wonder that, after this, the English sailors were encouraged in 25 their belief that to rob Spaniards was a righteous action.

Yet Drake was not cruel. On the shore near Tarapaca he found a Spaniard asleep, never fancying that an enemy could be near. In his assurance of 30 safety, he had laid thirteen bars of silver on the ground by his side. Drake took the silver, and left the man unhurt. At the next landing-place he met a man and a boy driving eight llamas carrying bags full of silver. The llamas and the silver too were 35 carried off by the English. As he sailed on through the warm tropical sea, wealth was to be gained by merely taking it. At Arica there were three vessels with not a soul on board, but fifty-seven wedges of silver, each as large as a brick. At Callao, the port 40 of Lima, the chief town of Peru, there were twelve

ships. The crews were all on shore, believing that there was no need of watchfulness. Drake found on board silk and linen and coined silver to add to his store.

- 5 At Callao Drake heard of a treasure greater still than any which he had yet seen. A ship named the 'Cacafuego' had lately started for Panama, carrying the year's store of gold and silver to be sent across the isthmus to Spain. He at once started in pursuit.
- 10 On the way he boarded a vessel, out of which he took eighty pounds weight of gold, and a crucifix studded with emeralds. Even this, however, was but little in comparison with the lading which Drake expected to find in the 'Cacafuego.' He told his men
- 15 that whoever first caught sight of her should be rewarded with the chain of gold which he used to wear round his own neck.

At last the 'Cacafuego' was sighted far away to seaward. It was the afternoon, and Drake feared that

20 if he attempted to chase her in the daylight she would escape. So he fastened some empty oil-jars to the stern of his own ship, trailing them on the sea as he went. The trick succeeded. The 'Pelican,' with this weight behind her, sailed more slowly than she had

25 ever sailed before; and the captain of the 'Cacafuego,' taking her for a lumbering country vessel, sailed up to see what she had on board. He was received with a cannonade, which shot away his mainmast, and obliged him to surrender.

- 30 The prize was enormous. There were jewels in plenty, thirteen chests of silver coin, eighty pounds weight of gold, and twenty-six tons of silver.

So Drake went on, never meeting with resistance, carrying off untold riches, but never treating a human

35 being cruelly. The prisoners whom he took were always politely set on shore; though he knew that if he had been caught by the Spaniards he would not have been allowed to live.

At last the time came when even Drake had had

40 enough of plundering. Perhaps he had no more room for booty in his ship. At all events he knew that

the Spaniards had by this time taken alarm, and that he would not now find the capturing of Spanish ships so easy as he had hitherto done. He resolved to make for home.

Drake did not choose to return by the way by 5 which he had come. He did not wish to encounter once more the cold stormy seas on either side of the Straits of Magellan, and he feared that the Spaniards might be on the watch for him off the coasts of Peru and Chili. He therefore resolved to try to go back 10 by a way which we now know to be impracticable. He wished to sail round the north coast of America.

In those days no one knew how far America stretched towards the North Pole, or how impossible it was for a ship to force its way through the icy sea 15 which stops all passage by the side of its dreary shore. As far as any one's knowledge went, there might be an open sea, where, as we now know, the continent broadens out. Drake determined to try whether this were really so. Refitting the 'Pelican' 20 at Acapulco, he steered northwards, along the coast which is now known as that of California, and even further than that of Oregon. He could go no further. It is possible that he had reached a point still more to the north. The bitter cold passed all the endurance 25 of men who had long been basking under a tropical sun. There were no signs of any passage to the eastward. Drake gave up the attempt, and the ship was put about.

The 'Pelican' was driven southwards by a strong 30 gale. Not far from the spot where San Francisco now stands Drake ran his ship into a safe harbour.

Before long Indians came to visit the strangers. They were peaceable and courteous. The chief placed a crown on Drake's head, and made signs of sub- 35 mission to him. Perhaps he took the white man to be a god or some superior being. Drake interpreted his actions to mean that he gave away his land, and accepted it in the name of Queen Elizabeth. He set

16. *by the side of, längs.*

up a post, to which he affixed a brass plate with an inscription stating the circumstances of the surrender of the country to the Queen of England. The Queen never profited by the gift, and, under the name of
5 California, the land is one of the most flourishing of the United States.

During his stay in the Californian harbour, Drake carefully refitted and strengthened his ship. He had but one way in which he thought it possible to reach
10 England—the way across the Pacific. Only once before had a ship—the ship of Magellan—sailed from America to Asia. It was a daring deed even to follow in its course.

For sixty-eight days the bold mariners sailed on,
15 seeing nothing but sea and sky. At last they sighted an island, and not many days afterwards they reached the Philippine Islands. On they went through the Eastern Archipelago, winning good repute amongst the natives whom they visited. It is wonderful that Drake
20 escaped shipwreck in a sea so full of islands and rocks, as he had no chart to guide him. At last, however, his good fortune appeared to have failed him. The 'Pelican' ran upon a rock. Drake at once called his whole ship's company to prayers, and then ordered
25 the sailors to lighten the vessel. They threw over a large quantity of cloves, some provisions, and eight guns. They took care not to part with their gold and silver until it became absolutely necessary to do so. Luckily for them the wind changed, and drove
30 the ship off the rock into deep water. The 'Pelican' had no more dangers to encounter. It made its way safely round the Cape of Good Hope, and reached Plymouth after an absence of rather more than two years and ten months.

35 No wonder that the men of Plymouth, who knew from their own experience what difficulties and dangers Drake had surmounted, received this son of Devon on his return with rapturous applause.

When Drake reached London he found that there
40 were many who took a less favourable view of his conduct. The Spanish ambassador urged the Queen

to give up the property of his master's subjects. Drake, he said, was a mere pirate. If Elizabeth protected him, the King of Spain would declare war against England. Some of Elizabeth's ministers supported the demand of the Spaniard. 5

Elizabeth wanted to keep the treasure, that she might divide it between herself and Drake; but she did not want to go to war with Spain. She accordingly ordered the gold and silver to be weighed and counted so that the Spanish ambassador might think 10 that it was to be restored. She had not as yet made up her mind whether she would restore anything or not. But she was firmly resolved not to give it all up. She bade Drake to carry on shore a quantity of his booty before the officers arrived to examine it, and 15 Drake, of course, obeyed her order.

No one, therefore, will ever know the real value of the whole treasure which Drake brought home. What was left on board the 'Pelican' was duly examined, packed in chests, and brought up to the 20 Tower of London. There were no less than twenty tons of silver, besides five ingots of solid gold, and a great quantity of jewels.

Elizabeth did not want to go to war, but she sadly needed money. She had to govern England 25 without sufficient taxes to enable her to pay her necessary expenses, and she was ready to throw difficulties in the way of restoring money to the Spaniards, who were likely to be her enemies before long.

If Elizabeth had only loved money, she would 30 not have been so highly thought of by her subjects as she was. She delighted in a brave and gallant action, and she knew that Drake was a brave and gallant man. She was proud of him as an Englishman, and she was half inclined to think as he did, 35 that to take wealth from the Spaniards in America was a righteous deed. She gave him a large sum of money out of his stores, went on board the 'Pelican,' where she took part in a magnificent banquet given in her honour, and ended by knighting Drake on the 40 deck of his own ship.

Sir Francis Drake, as he was now called, knew that after this his booty would never be surrendered. In the end Elizabeth allowed him and his sailors to take a large share, and kept the rest, whatever it
5 may have been, for herself.

When the Spanish ambassador waited on the Queen to demand restitution, he boldly asserted that Englishmen had no right to be in the Pacific. Elizabeth scolded him well for daring to assert that the
10 Spaniards had a right to exclude all other nations from America. She told him that other nations did the Spaniards no wrong if they sent colonies to lands which were not actually inhabited by the Spaniards, or if they freely navigated the vast Pacific, since sea
15 and air were common to all.

It was not only by Elizabeth that Drake was held in honour. One writer of the time declared that Drake's ship ought to be hoisted up to the top of the stump of the steeple of St. Paul's Cathedral, to
20 take the place of the spire which had been destroyed by lightning some years before. No one else approved of so wild a plan, and the 'Pelican' was preserved in the dockyard at Deptford, just as Nelson's ship, the 'Victory,' is preserved in Portsmouth harbour. At one
25 time it was visited by people who wished to have their suppers on board the vessel which had circumnavigated the globe. At last the old ship was broken up, and a chair made out of its timbers was sent as a gift to the University of Oxford.

30 For the next four or five years Drake remained quietly in England. In 1585 he was sent by the Queen to the West Indies. By this time England and Spain were virtually at war, though there had been no actual declaration of hostilities. This time Drake
35 commanded a fleet of twenty-one vessels, with soldiers on board. After various adventures Drake arrived in the West Indies and landed 1,200 men near Saint Domingo. The town was speedily taken and a large ransom demanded. When it was refused, Drake ordered

33. *virtually*, thatsächlich.

his men to set fire to some of the houses, burning more every day till the money was paid. The task was, however, not so easy as it seemed. The houses were built of stone, and there was little in them that would burn. At last Drake accepted a much smaller 5 sum than that for which he had asked at first, and sailed away to Cartagena. This city, too, he took, and held till it was ransomed.

Drake's officers consulted together about the disposal of the money which had been thus obtained. 10 According to the custom, which prevailed at sea, they were themselves entitled to a large share. All this, at Drake's recommendation, they freely gave up to the poor sailors and soldiers, who had suffered much on the voyage and had reaped little benefit from it. It 15 was such acts as this, besides his skill as a navigator and a commander, which endeared Drake to his men.

Drake then steered northwards, and, after some fighting with Spaniards in Florida, visited the new colony which had been sent out to Virginia by Raleigh, 20 and which was the first English settlement in America. The colonists were, however, weary of their lonely life, and at their urgent request Drake took them on board and sailed with them to England.

'These men,' wrote Camden, 'who were thus 25 brought back were the first that I know of that brought into England that Indian plant which they call tobacco. . . . Certainly from that time forward it began to grow into great request, and to be sold at a high rate, whereof in a short time many men 30 everywhere—some for wantonness, some for health's sake, with insatiable desire and greediness—sucked in the stinking smoke through an earthen pipe, which presently they blew out again at their nostrils: inso-much that tobacco-shops are now as ordinary in most 35 towns as tap-houses and taverns, so that the Englishmen's bodies (as one said wittily) which are so delighted with this plant, seem, as it were, to be degenerated into the nature of barbarians, since they are delighted, and think they may be cured, with the same things 40 which the barbarians use.'

Drake returned to England in the summer of 1586. By this time the strife between Spain and England was growing more bitter every day. Englishmen helped the Dutch, who had once been subjects of the
5 King of Spain, in their revolt. Plots for the assassination of Elizabeth were frequently formed in England by men who wished to see the imprisoned Mary Stuart, the Queen of Scots, on the English throne. In February, 1587, the Queen of Scots, having been accused of a
10 guilty knowledge of one of these plots, was beheaded at Fotheringhay. King Philip's wrath was kindled. He resolved to fit out a great fleet for the invasion of England, to bring to submission the audacious islanders who plundered his ships and colonies, helped his re-
15 bellious subjects, and scorned his religion.

In April 1587, Drake was therefore sent to sea once more. This time he was to go to the coast of Spain to destroy as many Spanish ships as he could. On his way he met some Dutch ships, and learnt that
20 there were many vessels at Cadiz busily embarking warlike munitions and provisions for the invading fleet. On April 16 he sailed into Cadiz harbour amidst a storm of shot. Before night came he had burned, destroyed, or captured no less than a hundred vessels,
25 amongst them a new ship of what was then considered to be the enormous size of 1,200 tons. The Spanish admiral was so vexed by the disaster that he fell ill, and died a few months after.

Drake had done much, but he would not be
30 satisfied unless he could do more. 'I assure your honour,' he wrote to Sir Francis Walsingham, the Secretary of State, 'the like preparation was never heard of nor known, as the King of Spain daily maketh to invade England. He is allied with mighty
35 princes and dukes, of whom (besides the forces in his own dominions) he is to have great aid shortly; and his provisions of bread and wine are so great as will suffice 40,000 men a whole year.' Accordingly, Drake did all that was in his power to lessen these immense

stores which had been laid in by the enemy. Sailing along the south coast of Portugal, which at that time formed part of the dominions of the King of Spain, he seized and burned about a hundred more Spanish vessels laden with stores for the use of the fleet. 5

Then, after burning and destroying all the vessels and boats that he could find along the coast, Drake sailed for the Azores, hoping to find some wealthy prize which would enable him to satisfy his men. Here he met with one of those large ships in which 10 the Spaniards traded with the East Indies, and which were so strongly armed that hitherto no Englishman had ventured to attack them. Its contents were extremely valuable, and it is said that the knowledge thus gained of the wealth of the East Indies stirred up the Dutch, 15 and afterwards the English, to form companies for the purpose of trading in that part of the world.

Drake had made the invasion of England impossible for that year. He had, as he said, singed the King of Spain's beard. By the spring of 1588 Philip 20 had repaired his losses. The invincible Armada, as the great fleet was called in Spain, was at last ready to sail. The Duke of Medina Sidonia was appointed to the chief command. It was not intended that he should take an army with him from Spain 25 large enough to conquer England. He had little more than 20,000 soldiers with him. With these he was directed to sail up the Channel, through the Straits of Dover, to the coast of Flanders. There he would find a Spanish army of 40,000 men under the command of 30 the Prince of Parma, the best general of the time. This force was already provided with a large number of small vessels ready to carry it over to England. The duty assigned to the Armada was to preserve these vessels from the attack of the English and Dutch 35 fleets during their passage across the sea.

No one in Spain doubted that, if once the whole force of 60000 men were landed in England, they would beat down all resistance. The Spanish army was then the finest in the world. It was composed 40 of soldiers well trained and disciplined under skilful

officers. In England, on the other hand, there was no regular army at all. Labouring men, farmers, and yeomen were liable to be called on to defend the country in case of invasion, but they were only drilled 5 for a few days in the year, and employed the rest of their time in peaceful occupations. Such men were, no doubt, brave enough, and they would be sure to fight as well as they could in defence of their homes, but they had never served in actual war, or had sub- 10 mitted to that strict discipline which was absolutely necessary to make an army capable of contending on equal terms with the veterans of Spain. After the Armada had actually set sail, an army composed of such elements was assembled at Tilbury. Elizabeth 15 was proud of the vigorous appearance of the men, and turning to Sir Francis Vere, a soldier who had fought in the wars of the Continent against Spanish troops, she asked what he thought of them. 'It is,' he replied, 'a brave army.' Elizabeth pressed her question. 20 'Madam,' said Vere, 'your Grace's army is brave indeed. I have not in the world the name of a coward; and yet I am the greatest coward here. All the fine fellows are praying that the enemy may land, and that there may be a battle, and I, who know that 25 enemy well, cannot think of such a battle without dismay.'

Whether the Spanish army would have succeeded in defeating the English troops we cannot tell. It was the business of Drake and of the English sea- 30 captains to take care that it should not have a chance of fighting on English soil. A Dutch fleet lay off the coast of Flanders blockading Parma's army, whilst the English fleet was to do its best to keep off the Armada itself.

35 Elizabeth placed Lord Howard of Effingham in command of the fleet. Under him, as vice-admiral, was Sir Francis Drake, the real soul of the defence. Amongst the captains were men whose names are still widely known to fame; Raleigh, who combined 40 in his own person almost all possible qualifications to distinction, the soldier, sailor, statesman, and

coloniser: Frobisher, who had long battled with the northern ice, and had given his name to the Strait which leads out of Hudson's Bay; the old John Hawkins who many years before had been Drake's commander in the disaster at St. Juan d'Ulloa, and who 5 now had superintended the fitting out of the Queen's ships with such care that every mast and every rope was of the very best and strongest that could be had. The weather was stormy, and the gales which blew were rough enough to try the stoutest timbers; yet the 10 vessels, as Lord Howard said, were in royal and perfect state, feeling the seas no more than if they had been riding at Chatham.

At last, on July 19, news was brought to Plymouth that the Armada was off the Lizard point. 15 Then, as Macaulay tells the story in his sparkling verse, —

Forthwith a guard at every gun was placed behind
the wall;
The beacon blazed upon the roof of Edgcumbe's lofty
hall;
Many a light fishing-bark put out to pry along the 20
coast,
And with loose rein and bloody spur rode inland
many a post.
With his white hair unbonneted, the stout old sheriff
comes;
Behind him march the halberdiers, before him sound
the drums;
His yeomen round the market cross made clear an
ample space,
For there behoves him to set up the standard of her 25
Grace.
And haughtily the trumpets peal, and gaily dance the
bells,
As slow upon the labouring wind the royal blazon
swells.

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The freshening breeze of eve unfurled that banner's
massy fold,

The parting gleam of sunshine kissed that haughty
scroll of gold;
Night sank upon the dusky beach, and on the purple
sea,
Such night in England ne'er had been, nor e'er again
shall be.
From Eddystone to Berwick bounds, from Lynn to
Milford Bay,
5 That time of slumber was as bright and busy as the
day;
For swift to east, and swift to west, the ghastly war-
flame spread,
High on St. Michael's Mount it shone, it shone on
Beachy Head,
Far on the deep the Spaniards saw, along each southern
shire,
Cape beyond cape, in endless range, those twinkling
points of fire.

10 Whilst the beacon-fires on the hills were doing
the work which would now be done by telegraph,
and were rousing Englishmen to battle, Lord Howard
and his captains were waiting with their ships at
Plymouth. Tradition tells that when the warning
15 came they were amusing themselves with a game of
bowls on Plymouth Hoe, an open green space raised
above the beach, from which is to be seen the whole
expanse of the Sound, with its bright waters and
lovely shores. Most of the players wished to break
20 off their sport when they heard the great news. Drake
insisted on going on. 'There is plenty of time,' he
said, 'to win the game and beat the Spaniards too.'

Drake was right in not being in a hurry. It
was not till the afternoon of the next day that the
25 Armada swept up to Plymouth before a light breeze.
It covered an expanse of sea seven miles in breadth.
It was composed of 129 ships, many of them of huge
size, like floating castles. The English ships were
indeed more in number, for they had 192 in all, but
30 they were of smaller size, measuring only 29,000
tons against the 59,000 of the Spaniards; and what

was still more important, they had but 837 guns to oppose to the 2,531 which protected the Armada. It would have been madness to engage the English fleet with its little vessels broadside to broadside against such overwhelming odds. 5

No one knew this better than Drake. The advantage of the English ships lay not in bulk, but in construction. They were easily handled, and answered the rudder, whilst the floating castles of Spain were hardly more under control than a haystack would have 10 been. An English captain in the wake of the enemy's track could keep his ship at what distance he pleased from the Spaniard whom he pursued. He could outsail him in every way; could come up with him if he pleased, and could tack and be off if the danger of a 15 combat was too great.

Just before nightfall the fighting began. The English ships shifting their places rapidly poured their shot into the enemy at every advantage. The Spaniards could neither overtake their adversaries 20 nor reach them with their shot. It was like a battle between a herd of oxen and a swarm of wasps. Lord Howard could observe that many of the large ships of the enemy were busy in stopping leaks. 'Notwithstanding,' he wrote, 'we durst not adventure to put in 25 amongst them, their fleet being so strong; but there shall nothing be either neglected or unhazarded that may work their overthrow'.

The commanders of the Armada gave up the vain attempt to catch their nimble enemies. Up the Channel 30 the great fleet sailed, followed up by the foe. One of the largest ships caught fire. Another came into collision with one of its comrades and was abandoned; it dropped astern and surrendered to Drake. For some days the running fight was kept up. The Spaniards 35 were brave men, and did their best to resist, but they could not overcome the disadvantages of the unwieldy construction of their ships. 'The great guns,' wrote Camden, 'rattled like so many peals of thunder; but the shot from the high-built Spanish ships flew for 40 the most part over the heads of the English without

doing any execution, owing to their high forecastles, and their inability to depress their guns. . . . The reason was, that the English ships were moved and managed with such agility, giving their broadsides to
5 the larger and more unwieldy of the enemy, and sheering off again just as they pleased, while the Spanish heavy ships lay as so many butts for the English to fire at.' The Spaniards were anxious to board the English ships. If they had been able to do
10 this they would have had a great advantage from the large number of their soldiers, but they never could get near enough to make the attempt.

At last, on the 27th, the Armada reached the friendly port of Calais. Medina Sidonia had for some
15 time been sending hurried messages to the Prince of Parma for aid. The Prince replied that he could do nothing. He could not leave the coast of Flanders unless the Armada came to protect him against the English fleet. Though a storm had driven off the
20 Dutch blockading squadron, he could not venture to put to sea. The boats which he had prepared as transports were not made to encounter a storm, and could only cross in fine weather.

In the meanwhile the English captains had difficulties of their own. Elizabeth had but a small
25 revenue, and for many years she had forbore to ask her subjects to increase it, lest additional taxation should rouse their opposition. Under the absolute necessity of keeping down expenditure to the lowest
30 possible limit, she had been forced to be extremely economical, and before long economy stiffened into the meanest stinginess. At this critical moment she had doled out stores of provisions and gunpowder with a sparing hand, and the sailors who had fought so well
35 were left without the means of firing a cannon; and in a few days more they would be without the means of providing themselves with a dinner.

In these desperate circumstances a council of war met on board Lord Howard's ship. On one point
40 every member of it was agreed. The Armada must not be allowed to remain quietly at Calais to repair

its damages and to stock itself with powder and shot and fresh provisions. After some consideration it was resolved to drive the enemy out with fireships. Eight of the English vessels were selected, and filled with pitch and other materials which were likely to catch 5 fire easily. At midnight the eight vessels were let go. The tide swept them down towards the part of the harbour in which the Spanish fleet was anchored. The wind blew them on in the same direction. Just as they were reaching their destination the sailors set 10 alight the combustibles on board, leapt over the sides into their boats, and rowed away. The Spaniards were roused by the sudden appearance of eight great masses of flame bearing down upon them, where a moment before there had been nothing but black darkness. 15 They had no time to consider what precautions could be taken. Cries of 'Cut the cables' were heard from one end of the line to the other. Quick strokes of the axe promptly set each ship at liberty. Sails were hoisted, and the whole fleet, with the exception of one 20 large ship which had run aground, escaped safely to sea.

They hoped, no doubt, to return to their anchorage on the morrow. Drake had determined that this should not be. The wind was rising to a gale, and 25 the Spaniards must not be left where they might hope, when the weather moderated, to reach the shore on which the Prince of Parma was waiting for them with his army. Such heavy awkward ships would never be able to return to the Flemish coast if once they 30 were driven beyond it. By this time the English had obtained fresh ammunition, and when the Spaniards attempted to come back to Calais they were received with a storm of shot. They tried in vain to return it. As their ships rolled on the waves, now mounting 35 high before the gale, their unskilful gunners were unable to direct their cannon to the mark. All day long the huge sides of their hips lay like targets to be riddled by the shot fired by well tried English seamen, who could fire as steadily amidst the tossing 40 waves as if they had been exercising on dry land.

Some of the Spanish ships were sent or driven ashore upon the shallow flats of the Flemish coast. The wind rose still more, and when night came Medina Sidonia thought himself lucky that the English, whose
5 ammunition had again fallen short, seemed inclined to let him alone. Four thousand of his men had been killed or drowned in that day's fight, if it can be called a fight where all the damage was on one side. The remains of the Armada drifted past the low coast,
10 from which they had expected to embark an army for the conquest of England, flying wildly before the storm and the English guns. 'God,' wrote Drake, 'hath given us so good a day in forcing the enemy to leeward, as I hope in God the Prince of Parma and the
15 Duke of Sidonia shall not shake hands these few days; and whensoever they shall meet, I believe neither of them will greatly rejoice of this day's service.'

The next day the English sailors had but little powder left in their whole fleet. But their commanders
20 knew how to appear to be strong even when they were not. They followed up the chase, and the Armada fled before them. Drake and Raleigh and many another avenger was behind. In the front death stared the brave Spaniards in the face in another form. The
25 swelling waves were beating wildly on the low flats of Holland, and with such unwieldy ships it would be impossible, unless the wind changed, to avoid certain destruction. Just as the danger was at the highest, the westerly gale fell and was succeeded by a gentle
30 breeze springing up from the east. Medina Sidonia, if he had had any courage left, might have shifted his course for Calais, and striven, even yet, to pick up Parma's army.

Neither he nor his men dared to face once more
35 the English fleet. Orders were given to steer for the north, and to seek a way of return round the north of Scotland and the west of Ireland. Before long the wind shifted once more to the south, and made any other course impossible. 'There was never,' wrote

Drake, 'anything that pleased me better than the seeing the enemy flying with a southerly wind to the northwards. With the grace of God, if we live, I doubt it not but ere it be long so to handle the matter with the Duke of Sidonia, as he shall wish himself at St. 5 Mary Port among his orange trees. God give us grace to depend on Him, so shall we not doubt victory, for our cause is good.'

For a time Howard and Drake followed up the flying enemy. At last, when their provisions began 10 to fail through Elizabeth's parsimony, they put back to the English coast, knowing that the gale would not suffer the Spaniards to return, and, as one of the English captains said, that many of them would never see Spain again. 15

It was quite true. The baffled Armada fled round the north of Scotland, dropping disabled vessels to sink as unaided as it went on its way. Then they steered round the coast of the west of Ireland. Many a tall ship, with its rigging worn away and its masts 20 snapped, was driven on the rocks and cliffs of that ironbound coast, on which the waves of the broad Atlantic dash with all their force. An Englishman counted no less than 1,100 corpses on a beach five miles in length. Spaniards who struggled on shore were 25 shot or hanged by the English officials. Of the whole of the Spanish fleet no more than fifty reached Spain.

It is sad to know that Elizabeth treated her own victorious sailors with neglect. She had summoned the nation to her aid in its own defence, and had 30 spoken noble words to the strong men who rallied round her. But she doled out provisions to the sailors with a sparing hand, and most of those who returned were left to die of diseases incurred by the scantiness of their food at a time when their service had been 35 so hard.

It was no mean victory which these men, assisted by the fury of the winds and waves, had won for England. The prize at stake was the independence of the country and its continued existence as a free, 40 self-governing community. Its religion was not to be

dictated to it by a foreign power, but was to shape itself under influences exerted over it within this island itself. The laws by which it was to be governed, and the choice of the sovereign to whom it would
5 render obedience, were matters with which thenceforward no king of a continental State was to venture to interfere.

Never again, as we know, did a Spanish king send forth a fleet and army for the invasion of Eng-
10 land. Those, however, who had witnessed the defeat of the great fleet did not expect this. They fancied that a new Armada might yet be launched which would attempt to carry out the enterprise when the gales blew less fiercely. All the energy of Elizabeth's
15 Government was, therefore, thrown into the task of weakening Spain.

In 1589 Drake was sent out once more. This time he was placed in command of a considerable fleet, on board which was a small army under the
20 command of Sir John Norris.

The expedition was less successful than many others undertaken by Drake with far inferior means had been. The lower town of Corunna was plundered, but the upper town resisted all the efforts of the
25 assailants. After that the soldiers were landed and marched against Lisbon. But they had strangely omitted to bring cannon with them, and without cannon they found it impossible to break down the defences of the town. Drake in the meantime was capturing
30 ships laden with stores which he believed to be intended for the Spanish fleet. After that he had nothing but ill-fortune. When the soldiers had re-embarked it was found that there was not enough provision on board to feed them all, and sickness broke out amongst the
35 hungry men. After large numbers had perished, the fleet returned to England. Some booty was brought home, but far less than had been expected of an expedition on so large a scale.

In 1592 Drake appeared in a new character.
40 His fellow-citizens of Plymouth elected him as their representative in the House of Commons, where he

warmly supported the grant of a large sum of money to the Queen, in order that the war against Spain might be vigorously carried on. In 1595 he was sent, in conjunction with old Sir John Hawkins, to attack once more the Spanish possessions in the West Indies. 5 They had under their command a fine fleet. Before anything could be done in the West Indies, Hawkins fell ill and died. Drake made his way to Puerto Rico, where a rich Spanish galleon had been lying. This time, however, the Spaniards were well prepared. They 10 had sunk the galleon in the harbour, and had protected her with a floating barrier composed of spars, over which the great guns of the forts were ready to pour their shot. Drake and his men gallantly made the attempt to break through the defences, but, after a 15 heavy loss, they were compelled to draw off.

Drake was already suffering from illness, and the bad state of his health seems to have soured his temper. He sailed along the north coast of South America, failing to obtain much booty, but ravaging 20 and burning as he went. At last he arrived at Nombre de Dios, the place which, many years before, he had spoken of as the treasure-house of the world. This time the treasure-house was almost empty, and after burning the town, Drake resolved to cross the isthmus 25 to Panama, where he expected to find piles of gold and silver. He never reached the place. The Spaniards fired at his men from the woods, and killed so many of them that he thought it prudent to retreat.

Once more on board ship a commander like Drake 30 might still have hoped to find an opportunity of inflicting some blow upon the enemy. But the disease under which he was suffering made rapid progress, and on January 28, 1659, on the sea between Nombre de Dios and Porto Bello, the great sea captain died, 35 at the age of fifty-five.

'If any one', says an old writer, 'should be desirous to know something of Sir Francis Drake's person, he was of stature low, but set and strong grown; a very religious man towards God and His houses; 40 generally sparing the churches wherever he came;

chaste in his life, just in his dealings, true of his word, merciful to those that were under him, and hating nothing so much as idleness. In matters of moment he was never wont to rely on other men's care, how
5 trusty or skilful soever they might seem to be, but always contemning danger and refusing no toil.'

Amongst those who have taken part in founding and preserving this England in which we live, Drake occupies an honourable place. If he plundered galleons
10 and sacked towns, he did no more than that which others of every nation and creed thought it, in his day, no shame to do. That he bore himself courteously to his prisoners, and spared human life as far as was consistent with the object which he set before him,
15 was a merit which was all his own. If he in some respects reminds us of the Black Prince, it is certain that he never did nor ever could perpetrate a crime like the massacre of Limoges. By his skill and his devotion to duty he took a noble place amongst the
20 guardians of our land who drove off the Spanish invaders, and who preserved our shores inviolate from the tread of a foreign army which was longing to impose on us the yoke of a law and a religion which we had not chosen as our own. If England remained
25 free and independent, it was in great part the result of the life-work of Sir Francis Drake.

OLIVER CROMWELL.

OLIVER CROMWELL was born in 1599, three years after the death of Drake, and four years before the death of Elizabeth. Elizabeth had many faults, but her successor, James I., had more; he did not understand, as Elizabeth had understood, how to lead a free and high-spirited nation. Elizabeth had made war with Spain, and James had wisely made peace as soon as the independence of England was secured. But he had not been content with bringing the war to an end. He proposed to marry his son to a Spanish princess, and by this he made himself extremely unpopular in England. The marriage, however, never took place, and when Charles I. came to the throne in 1625, he engaged in a war with Spain, and two years later he engaged in a war with France. He left all the arrangements for these wars in the hands of his favourite, the Duke of Buckingham, whose mismanagement caused one disaster after another. All England was united in detestation of a government so incompetent.

Such were the years during which the youth and early manhood of Oliver Cromwell were spent. His father, Robert Cromwell, was a gentleman living at Huntingdon, the younger son of a man who had squandered away the greater part of a considerable property, and who left behind him an eldest son who squandered away the remainder. Oliver's father was a man of a very different stamp. In his household there was no

extravagance. The young Oliver was sent to the grammar-school of the town, and afterwards to Cambridge, where he was admitted a member of the University on the very day on which Shakspeare died at
5 Stratford. In the following year his father died, and the care of his widowed mother with that of his sisters devolved upon Oliver. After a time he went to London to study law, not because he intended to be a lawyer, but because every gentleman in those days was ex-
10 pected to know something of the law of his own country. Before he left London, when he was only in his twenty-second year, he married Elizabeth Bourchier, who proved a true and faithful wife to him in every variety of fortune.

15 Soon after Oliver settled in Huntingdon a great change came over him. He learnt, like so many of those who in those times bore the nickname of Puritan, to look back upon his past life as utterly sinful. We need not suppose that he had been more than care-
20 less about religion and fond of the sports of youth because he speaks of himself as having been exceedingly guilty. 'You know,' he wrote some years afterwards, 'what my manner of life hath been. Oh! I lived in and loved darkness, and hated light; I was
25 chief, the chief of sinners. This is true. I hated godliness, yet God had mercy on me.' Something of this kind had been said by Sir Thomas More of himself, and the self-accusation need not be taken more literally in the one case than in the other. For some time
30 Cromwell's whole soul was stirred by this feeling of his own unworthiness. At last he grew calmer. He came to believe in the saving mercy of his Saviour, and to cast his cares and sins upon Him. In after years he felt assured that he could not have learned
35 this lesson unless he had first learned to know his own need of help. 'Whoever,' he wrote to his daughter, 'tasted that the Lord is gracious, without some sense of self, vanity, and badness?'

40 Cromwell's piety was not of that kind which sends a man to self-contemplation, or to the avoidance of the perils of the world. His practical nature made

him take pleasure in the daily business of life, in the toils of providing for his wife and his young family, as he afterwards took it in guiding an army or controlling the policy of the State. He was one of those who thoroughly understood the meaning of the saying, 5
'Whatsoever thy hand findeth to do, do it with thy might.'

That he conducted himself honourably in the sight of men, we may gather from the fact that in 1628 he was elected by his fellow-townsmen, who knew better 10 than others whether he was a hypocrite or not, to represent them in the House of Commons. In the first session he sat silently. The breaches of the law by the king and his officers had caused universal indignation, and the Petition of Right was in the end 15 accepted by the king as the fitting remedy. Such matters Cromwell may have thought were better left to be handled by the lawyers. In the second session, in 1629, he spoke once. Questions about religion were being discussed. Some of the clergy, who were 20 supported by the king, had introduced ceremonies into the worship which Cromwell and those who agreed with him believed to be unfit to be used in Protestant churches, and Cromwell spoke harshly of these men. The session did not last long. The king dissolved 25 Parliament, and he did not call another for eleven years.

During those years Charles I. did many things to exasperate the nation. He allowed Laud, who, in 1633, became Archbishop of Canterbury, to enforce 30 upon all the clergy the whole of the Prayer Book. In our own time this would not be considered as a hardship, because any one who dislikes the Prayer Book of the Church of England can separate from that Church, and use any form of prayer which he prefers 35 without any punishment from the State. In the days of Charles I. any one who stayed away from church was fined, and those who collected a congregation to preach to it, or pray with it, could be sent to prison.

There was soon, therefore, a large number of persons, of whom Cromwell was one, who wished to change the services of the Church and to make them simpler than they were. Besides these there was a still larger
5 number of persons who disliked Charles's government, because he made them pay large sums of money without obtaining the consent of Parliament. Ship-money, a tax levied by the mere will of the king to meet the expenses of the navy, was especially unpopular.

10 During these years little is heard of Cromwell. He prospered as a grazier, keeping cattle first near Huntingdon and then near St. Ives. On one occasion he made some stir by taking up the cause of poor men who were badly treated in a division of lands
15 made when the fens were being drained; but on the whole he seems to have attended to his own concerns, and he certainly did not take any public part in protesting against the actions of the king.

In 1640, both in the Short Parliament which met
20 in April, and in the more famous Long Parliament which met in November, he sat as member for Cambridge. When the Long Parliament met the king's power had entirely broken down. He had made the Scots his enemies by attempting to force them to use
25 a new Prayer Book, and they had invaded England, and defeated part of his army. The members of the Long Parliament were determined to put an end to the past abuses. They impeached and executed Strafford, Charles's chief adviser. They abolished ship-
30 money, and compelled Charles to consent to a bill putting it out of his power to levy money again without consent of Parliament, and they also put an end to several courts which had inflicted punishment without the assistance of juries.

35 To these changes there was scarcely any opposition. But the case was altered when the House of Commons began to consider whether any changes should be made in the Church. A large number of the members wished to see the Prayer Book left un-
40 touched, or, at least, only slightly modified; and also desired that the bishops should retain their authority

in order that they might be able to punish those persons who found fault with the Prayer Book, or who, if they were clergymen, neglected to use it. On the other hand, a large number of members wished that the Prayer Book should be considerably altered, 5 and that the bishops should be stripped of much of their power, or, perhaps, abolished altogether.

In November 1641, the latter party drew up the Grand Remonstrance. This celebrated document, after recounting the details of the king's past misgovernment, 10 demanded that ministers of the Crown should be such as Parliament could have confidence in, and that an assembly of divines should be summoned to suggest a plan for the future government of the Church.

Amongst those who gave the warmest support to 15 these demands was Cromwell. He was most anxious to see the power of the bishops diminished, and he knew that it was not safe to leave to Charles the right of appointing what ministers and officers he pleased. A rebellion had recently broken out in Ireland, 20 and it would be necessary to send an army to suppress it. If the officers of that army were named by Charles, he would be able to use it against the House of Commons as soon as it had accomplished its task in Ireland. 25

So clear did the matter appear to Cromwell, that he could not understand that any one could honestly disagree with him. 'Why,' he said to Falkland, who was hostile to the proposed ecclesiastical changes, and who wanted to postpone the debate, 'would you have 30 it put off?' 'There would not have been time enough,' was the reply, 'for sure it will take some debate.' 'A very sorry one,' said Cromwell. He was not prepared for the strength of opposition that was aroused. The vote on the Remonstrance was not taken till after 35 midnight, a late hour on days when the House met usually at eight o'clock in the morning. The Remonstrance was carried by only eleven votes. Before the House separated the two parties almost came to blows. As the members left, Falkland asked Cromwell whether 40 there had been a debate. 'I will take your word for

it another time,' was the answer. 'If the Remonstrance had been rejected, I would have sold all I had the next morning, and never have seen England any more; and I know there are many other honest men of this
5 same resolution.'

In these words Cromwell spoke out his whole mind. To be forced to worship, or rather to pretend to worship, in a way which they believed to be offensive to God and destructive to the health of their own
10 souls, was intolerable to these old Puritans. They would rather die than submit to it. Unfortunately they did not content themselves with asking religious liberty for themselves. They wished to compel all others to worship as they did. So far as they asked
15 for liberty for themselves they did well. So far as they denied it to others they did ill. For the present Cromwell thought as others thought. That which makes his life worth telling is that he had a mind open to receive impressions from the facts around him,
20 and that he grew larger-hearted and more tolerant, whilst many a man who started with him learned nothing from experience.

From the debate on the Grand Remonstrance, it was but a short step to civil war. In January, Charles
25 attempted to seize five members of the House of Commons whom he accused of treason. Failing in this, he left London and drew off towards the north. The king and the Parliament each claimed the right of commanding the militia—that is to say, the citizen
30 soldiers who in those days were called from their ordinary avocations of life to defend England in times of invasion or rebellion. Neither party would trust the other. In the main, those who wished to see the Prayer Book altered took the side of Parliament, and
35 those who wished it to be preserved unchanged took the side of the king. Amongst the former were the citizens of London, the majority of the townsmen and the small landowners, especially in the south and east of England. Amongst the latter were the majority of
40 the country gentlemen and their tenants, especially in the north and west.

The war began on August 22, 1642, when the king raised his standard at Nottingham. Cromwell thought that he could serve the cause which he followed better in the field than in the House of Commons, and he became captain of a troop of horse in the Parliamentary army. In those days cavalry was more important to an army than it is now. The infantry had muskets so heavy that they could only fire them from portable rests, which they carried with them, and these muskets had no bayonets, and could only be fired slowly. The musketeers were accompanied by pikemen, who did their best to protect them; but it was seldom, if ever, that musketeers and pikemen combined could resist a charge of cavalry in the open field. Hence the army which had the best cavalry was superior to the army which had the best infantry.

How superior the king's cavalry was, was shown in the first battle of the war. The armies met at Edgehill in Warwickshire. Prince Rupert at the head of the Royal horse, swept away almost the whole of the Parliamentary cavalry and nearly half of its foot soldiers. If Rupert had been a good general, he would have wheeled round and destroyed the whole of the enemy's foot. As it was, he dashed after the flying rout in headlong haste. Whilst he was pursuing the fugitives, the remainder of the Parliamentary infantry recovered itself, and was supported by some troops of horse which had remained undefeated, and amongst which was the one commanded by Captain Cromwell. These men inflicted severe injury upon the king's army, though they could not quite make up for the losses suffered in the early part of the battle.

Cromwell was one of those men who, when they see anything going wrong, are not content till they have found out the cause of the mischief and have devised a remedy. 'Your troops,' he said to his cousin Hampden, 'are most of them old decayed serving-men and tapsters, and such kind of fellows; and their troops are gentlemen's sons, younger sons, and persons of quality. Do you think that the spirits of such

base and mean fellows will ever be able to encounter gentlemen that have honour, and courage, and resolution in them? You must get men of a different spirit—and take it not ill what I say; I know you will not—of
5 a spirit that is likely to go as far as gentlemen will go, or else you will be beaten still.’ Cromwell was not one to talk and not to act. In the following year he was sent into his own eastern counties, which had formed an association to enable them to resist the
10 king the better. Here he became a colonel of a regiment. He took care that no man should enter into that regiment who was not zealously Puritan in religion, and who did not believe, as strongly as he believed himself, that the cause for which he was fighting was
15 the cause of God. But he also took care that no one should enter who would not submit to discipline of the strictest kind. No pious talk would satisfy Cromwell if the man who used it would not bear himself manfully in the day of battle.

20 The campaign of 1643 was one to test the quality of any troops. Charles was steadily gaining ground. By the end of the year the south of England, from Cornwall to Hampshire, was, with the exception of a few isolated posts, commanded by his armies. The
25 Marquis of Newcastle, his general in the north, held the whole country from the Tweed to the Humber, with the exception of Hull. Charles was himself firmly established at Oxford, and though he had failed to capture Gloucester, he had pushed on beyond Reading
30 on his way to London. If Newcastle were strong enough to march south in the following summer, the Parliamentary cause would hardly be able to maintain itself much longer.

To check Newcastle, the Parliamentary leaders
35 had two resources at their command. In the first place, a Scottish army had consented to cross the Tweed, and to attack the Royalists in Yorkshire from the north. In the second place, the army of the counties

which had combined to form the Eastern Association still barred Newcastle's way to the south.

That army was now under the command of the Earl of Manchester, but Cromwell was its leading spirit. He had fought hard during the campaign of 1643, and after sweeping the Royalists out of Lincolnshire, had brought that county to join the Association. He now became lieutenant-general, or second in command over Manchester's army.

That army effected a junction with the Scottish army in Yorkshire. On July 2 the combined forces fought the battle of Marston Moor against Newcastle and Rupert. It was late in a summer evening when the two armies drew up face to face. Rupert thought there would be no fighting till the next morning, and flung himself on the grass to rest and to eat his supper. Newcastle, who did not love the Prince, came up to remonstrate with him on his military arrangements. Rupert was too headstrong to listen, and Newcastle went off angrily to smoke a pipe in his own quarters. Before the pipe was lighted the battle had begun. Cromwell, seeing how little prepared the enemy was, charged Rupert's horse, even at that late hour. That famous cavalry, all unprepared as it was, was broken and chased off the field. If Cromwell had hurried far in pursuit he would but have copied the ill example set by Rupert at Edgehill. Cromwell knew better. He pulled up, and turned to see how it fared with the rest of the army. He found that it had been beaten by the Royalists in that part of the field in which he was not present. His return renewed the fight, and before nightfall all Newcastle's troops were beaten by that unconquerable horse. Of 20,000 who had followed Newcastle to the field, no more than 3,000 were in a fit state to rally round him the next day. All Yorkshire and the north fell into the hands of the Parliamentary generals.

Cromwell, stern as he was to those whom he believed to be fighting against God, had a tender heart. His own son had been killed in the course of the last year's fighting. 'Sir,' he now wrote after the

battle to Colonel Walton, 'God hath taken away your eldest son by a cannon shot. It broke his leg. We were necessitated to have it cut off whereof he died. Sir, you know my trials this way. But the Lord
5 supported me with this, that the Lord took him into the happiness we all pant and live for. There is your precious child full of glory, not to know sin nor sorrow any more. He was a gallant young man, exceeding gracious. God give you His comfort. Before
10 his death he was so full of comfort that to Frank Russel and myself he could not express it—it was so great, above his pain. This he said to us A little after he said, one thing lay upon his spirit. I asked him what that was. He told me that it was
15 that God had not suffered him to be any more the executioner of His enemies. At his fall, his horse being killed with the bullet, and, as I am informed, three horses more, I am told he bid them open to the right and left, that he might see the rogues run.
20 Truly, he was exceedingly beloved in the army of all that knew him. But few knew him; for he was a precious young man, fit for God. You have cause to bless the Lord. He is a glorious saint in heaven, wherein you ought exceedingly to rejoice.'

25 It is a dangerous doctrine to teach men that they can regard themselves with certainty as the executioners of God's enemies. Yet even at this time, when he was acting as if no Royalist could be other than an enemy of God, Cromwell's own mind was
30 gradually widening out to accept the doctrine that, at least under considerable limitations, religious liberty is a good thing for the State which allows it. It was characteristic of him that he did not come to this conclusion by mere meditation on the beauty
35 of toleration. He raised himself to grasp a new idea by his perception of the practical advantages which would ensue to the army from its adoption. His business was to beat the enemy, and he knew that he could not beat the enemy unless he could get the best
40 officers it was possible to get. In one case the best officer might be a Presbyterian, in another case a

Baptist, in a third case an Independent. Why, he asked himself, were any of these men to be excluded because of their religious opinions? 'Sir,' he wrote to an officer who wished to see no Baptists—or, as they were then called, Anabaptists—in the army, 'the State, in choosing men to serve it, takes no notice of their opinions; if they be willing faithfully to serve it, that satisfies. I advised you formerly to bear with men of different minds from yourself; if you had done it when I advised you to it, I think you would not have had so many stumbling-blocks in your way. It may be you judge otherwise; but I tell you my mind. I desire you would receive this man into your favour and good opinion. I believe, if he follow my counsel, he will deserve no other but respect from you. Take heed of being sharp, or too easily sharpened by others, against those to whom you can object little, but that they square not with you in every opinion concerning matters of religion.'

It does not follow that Cromwell wished to appoint officers from all possible religions. 'If they be willing faithfully to serve the State,' he wrote, 'that satisfies.' He did not believe that members of the Church of England or of the Roman Catholic Church would ever really wish to serve the State. They were in his eyes the enemies of God, and they were indisputably the enemies of Parliament. Besides there was no likelihood that any one of them would accept a command in the Parliamentary army, and Cromwell therefore did not think it necessary to inquire whether they ought to be tolerated or not.

Cromwell did not stand alone in these views. In Parliament and in the country a large number of men by this time advocated the grant of complete toleration to all Puritans. They are known in history as the Independent party, though it would be better to speak of them as the Tolerationist party. Their opponents were known as the Presbyterians, because they wished to establish a Presbyterian Church, and to refuse toleration to all other religious bodies.

The victory of Marston Moor relieved the Par-

liamentary army from a great danger. There was no longer a powerful enemy in the north threatening to bear down upon London and to make further defence impossible. Earlier in the year, too, Hopton, who commanded the king's forces in Hampshire, had been defeated at Cheriton, near Alresford, and the Parliamentary troops had therefore to deal only with the king's main army, which still held its own in the neighbourhood of Oxford. In order to grapple with this enemy, the Earl of Manchester, with Cromwell as his lieutenant-general, was ordered to march south, bringing with him the troops which he had commanded at Marston Moor.

The order was obeyed, and the two armies met at Newbury near the ground on which a battle had been fought in the preceding year. Manchester gained the day, but he did not follow up his victory. Cromwell had reason to believe that his superior officer did not wish to crush the king. Like Essex, in fact, Manchester cherished the idea of re-establishing a Parliamentary Constitution, and believed it to be possible to convince the king that the civil war could only be brought to an end by his acceptance of the chief position in such a Constitution. He did not, therefore, wish to beat the king too much, lest Charles should be so far humiliated as to be inadmissible as a ruler under any conditions. Cromwell took a very different view of the matter. 'If I met the king in battle,' he said, 'I would as soon pistol him as any other man.' Into the remote future he did not pry. It was not in his nature to be very anxious as to what might be the final shape of the Constitution ten or twenty years afterwards. The task immediately before him he thoroughly understood. The army was engaged in war, and it was the business of the army to defeat the enemy. To fight battles and to take care not to win them too completely was the way to continue useless bloodshed. If the enemy was not to be crushed it would be better not to engage in war at all.

9. *to grapple with*, anbinden mit.

There was something else in Manchester's mind besides his unwillingness to crush the king which made Cromwell his antagonist. Manchester's idea of a peace was not only one which should place Constitutional restraints upon the king, it was also one which should establish Presbyterianism in England, and prohibit independent religious meetings. In this, as Cromwell knew, Manchester would have the Scots on his side, and he therefore wished to have an army which should be as ready to fight the Scots if they played the part of oppressors in England as it was ready to fight the Royalists.

Filled with these thoughts, Cromwell brought heavy charges against Manchester. For a time it seemed likely that there would be a violent struggle between the two men. Suddenly the tempest calmed, and a compromise was adopted which gave Cromwell all he wanted. The charges against Manchester were dropped, but Parliament passed an Ordinance, known as the Self-denying Ordinance, by which all members of either House were thenceforward excluded from military commands. Essex and Manchester resigned their posts. Cromwell should have done the same, but Parliament could not spare so good a soldier, and he was exempted from the operation of the Ordinance.

In consequence of this change the Parliamentary army was entirely reorganised, and Sir Thomas Fairfax was appointed to the supreme command as general. Cromwell served under him as lieutenant-general. It was not, however, merely by a change of officers that the army was made stronger than it had been before. Care was taken that the soldiers of the new model—as the reconstructed army was at that time familiarly called—should be of the same zealous Puritanism which had characterised Cromwell's troopers when he first served as a simple captain of the Eastern Association. That it was composed of men of stern religious zeal, but also with a tendency to tolerate all forms of Puritan faith, was the distinctive feature of the new model. Strange opinions were to be found amongst

the soldiers, many of whom occupied themselves with preaching to one another after their work was done.

The army thus formed was never beaten on the field. To intense enthusiasm the new soldiers joined
5 a readiness to submit to discipline which made them invincible. On June 14, 1645, they found themselves confronted by Charles's army at Naseby. There were about 20,000 men on either side. The Royalists came on bravely. 'I can say this of Naseby,' wrote Crom-
10 well after the fight was over, 'that when I saw the army draw up and march, in gallant order towards us, and we a company of poor ignorant men, to seek how to order our battle—the general having commanded me to order all the horse—I could not, riding alone
15 about my business, but smile out to God in praises, in assurance of victory, because God would, by things that are not, bring to naught things that are, of which I had great assurance. And God did it.'

Cromwell was not one of those who allowed his
20 trust in God to make him slack in action. As at Edgehill, Rupert broke the part of the army opposed to him and scampered off in headlong pursuit, unmindful of the battle behind. Cromwell held on like a bulldog to the object of his attack. Before the
25 evening the whole of the king's troops were flying in hot haste from the field. Charles never again in that war gathered a force which could stand up in the field against Fairfax and Cromwell. For a year more the war went on. There were fortified posts to be captured,
30 and small detachments to be forced into submission. In April 1646 even Charles, sanguine as he was, saw that his case was hopeless. He rode out of Oxford to deliver himself up, not to Fairfax and Cromwell, but to David Leslie, who commanded the Scottish army
35 at Newark, and whom in May he accompanied to Newcastle. Charles hoped that the Scots would take his part. Had he not been born in Scotland, and was he not the descendant of the ancient Scottish kings?

For some months Charles was occupied in nego-
40 tiating with the Scots and the English Parliament. They wanted to induce him to agree to the estab-

lishment of Presbyterianism in England. Charles, however, would consent to nothing of the kind; and in January 1647 the Scots gave him up to the English Parliament, who established him at Holmby House, in Northamptonshire.

5

Whilst the king was there, a quarrel broke out between the Parliament and the army. The Parliament wished to disband part of the army without payment for its past services, and to send the remainder to Ireland. Naturally the army objected to be even in part disbanded unless it first received its pay. But the chief dispute was on a question of far greater importance. The Parliament had tried to establish Presbyterianism all over the country, and though it had not as yet succeeded in doing so, it was most anxious to gain the object which it had set before it. It imagined that it would be extremely dangerous to allow men of all sects to teach and to worship as they thought right. Plain people, it considered, would be so distracted by the various teachers, that they would cease to believe anything at all. In the army, on the other hand, the sects were predominant. It had become a fixed opinion amongst the soldiers that the Government had no right to meddle with a man's religion so long as he lived peaceably. 'If I choose to worship that pintpot,' said a soldier on one occasion, 'what is that to you?' Many of the soldiers were themselves preachers, and none of them were willing to return to their homes as private citizens unless they could be sure that they would be allowed to worship as they thought right when they were there.

The army, therefore, resolved to resist. The soldiers elected representatives, called agitators—so named from an old use of the word implying that the representatives were to act in the name of those who sent them—and these agitators met the officers to discuss what was to be done.

Officers and agitators together entered upon a long discussion with the Parliament. As the discussion seemed unlikely to bring them that which they wanted, they turned their eyes upon the king. He was under

the displeasure of the Presbyterians, as well as they. Why should they not bring him amongst them, and restore him to power on condition that he should grant to others that liberty of conscience which he claimed
5 for himself?

On the morning of June 3, a certain Cornet Joyce, at the head of a party of cavalry, appeared in the park of Holmby House. In the evening he saw the king, and told him that he had authority from the
10 army to take him away. Charles gave no positive answer, and on the following morning Joyce again pressed him to go. The king asked him whether he had a commission from Fairfax or from any one else to do what he proposed. Joyce led the king to the
15 window, and pointed to the men on horseback drawn up on the lawn. 'There is my commission, your majesty,' he said. 'A fair commission and well-written,' replied Charles; 'a company of as handsome, proper gentlemen as ever I saw in my life.' Charles then dressed him-
20 self in his ridingclothes, and went off with Joyce, apparently well pleased at the turn which affairs had taken. If the army was quarrelling with the Parliament, he thought it might perhaps be disposed to set him on the throne again. In the evening the party arrived
25 at Huntingdon, where Charles found himself among the soldiers. The strife between Parliament and army waxed hotter, till at last, on August 6, the army marched into Westminster, turning out of the House of Commons eleven of the leading Presbyterians.

30 It is a sad thing when armed force prevails over argument, and when soldiers dictate to Parliament what they shall do or shall not do. It must not, however, be forgotten that this Parliament was not like the Parliaments of our own days, which are responsible to
35 public opinion, expressed whenever the time arrives for a dissolution and fresh elections. In the heat of its struggle with the king in 1641, the Long Parliament had wrung from him his consent to a bill enacting that it should never be dissolved without its own
40 consent. There was, therefore, no power in England which could legally put an end to its sittings. It might

give orders of which public opinion heartily disapproved, and which were most injurious to the nation. Whether public opinion was on the side of the army or not it is difficult to say, but, at all events, the army had justice on its side, in asking that men who had jeopardised their lives in the cause of the Parliament should not be sent home to be persecuted because they did not think it right to worship as Parliament wished. 5

The army treated the king with all honour, establishing him at Hampton Court, and making proposals to him which, if he had accepted them, would have had the effect of restoring to him all the power with which he could safely have been entrusted. He was to have full liberty of religion for himself and the Episcopal Church, provided that he would allow full religious liberty to all other Protestants. The army, in short, wished to establish that system of toleration which was at last set up in the reign of William III., and which continues to exist in our own days. Unfortunately neither the king nor the Parliament was ready to adopt so excellent a scheme, and, strong as the army was, it was not strong enough to make either Charles or Parliament wiser than they were. Charles had, indeed, no objection to occupy as much time as possible, in the hope that the army and Parliament might quarrel with one another, and might end by asking him to rule over England in the old way. At last, however, he discovered that this was unlikely to happen, and he then fled to the Isle of Wight, where he found himself in the hands of one of the Parliamentary officers. He was placed in confinement in Carisbrooke Castle, and a fresh negotiation was opened at Newport between him and the Parliament. 10 15 20 25 30

Charles, however, had no thought of carrying this negotiation to an end. He had found out by this time that he had no chance of winning over the army to become his instrument in effecting his restoration to his old authority, and he therefore turned to the Scots. The Scots, indeed, were as jealous of the power of the army as he was himself. They thought that their intervention at Marston Moor had been the real cause 35 40

of the defeat of the king, and they were angry that after they had done so much, the English should refuse to set up that Presbyterian government of the Church which they believed to be of Divine appointment. To
5 tolerate the other sects they regarded as absolutely wicked. Charles, therefore, thought that it would be easy to come to terms with the Scots, and before the end of 1647 he had made a secret treaty with them, promising to establish Presbyterianism, and to suppress
10 the worship of the sects, if they would replace him on the throne. For many weeks he was discussing at Newport terms of arrangement with commissioners appointed by Parliament, hoping all the while that a Scottish army would soon cross the Tweed to help
15 him, as a similar army had helped his enemies before. Suddenly, when the English Parliamentary army was thrown off its guard, an insurrection of Charles's friends broke out in England. The first revolt was in South Wales. As soon as it was heard of, Cromwell was
20 despatched to suppress it. Then came disturbances in all the counties near London, and riots in London itself. The war which thus broke out is known as the Second Civil war. Fairfax was sent to put down the rebellion in Kent and Essex, while Cromwell besieged
25 Pembroke. Before either of them was free to act, the Scots crossed the border and marched southwards to the aid of the Royalists. Cromwell having at last put an end to resistance in Wales marched northwards, and caught the Scots at Preston. He had but 9,000
30 men with which to fight 24,000. Luckily for him the 24,000 had the Duke of Hamilton for a commander, and it would have been difficult for the Scots to select a worse general. He allowed his army to straggle over the country, and Cromwell had merely to attack
35 each portion of it separately to win a signal victory. It took him three days to do this, but when it had once been done, the victory was complete. The last day of the battle was August 19, 1648. Colchester surrendered to Fairfax on the 29th, and the Second
40 Civil War was at an end.

The close of the second war left the soldiers in a

far different temper from that in which it had been left by the first. Then they had subdued in fair fight an enemy who had stood up against them in a cause which he at least believed to be good. Now they had had to do with a trickster, who had lulled them with a false negotiation, carried on whilst he was preparing war against those who had trusted in his sincerity. Before they went out to battle, a large number of the soldiers and officers—Cromwell himself being among them—met at a solemn prayermeeting to consider the course which they ought to take. ‘It was the duty of their day,’ they resolved, ‘with the forces they had, to go out and fight those potent enemies which that year in all places appeared against them; and this with a humble confidence in the name of the Lord only that they would destroy them.’ They also resolved that, if they returned in peace, they would ‘call Charles Stuart, that man of blood, to an account for the blood he had shed, and mischief he had done to his utmost against the Lord’s cause and people in these poor nations.’

The time had come when this duty, as the army believed it to be, was to be fulfilled. The Parliament was of another opinion, and was carrying on the negotiation with Charles as if the Second Civil War had never happened.

The soldiers took the question into their own hands. On November 28 they removed the king from Carisbrooke, lodging him in Hurst Castle, a gloomy fortress built on what is almost an island in the midst of the Solent, united to the Hampshire coast only by a long bank of shingle. On December 5, the House of Commons persisted in its attempt to come to terms with the king. On the morning of the 6th a band of soldiers, commanded by Colonel Pride, was stationed at the door of the House. Pride had a list in his hand of members who were not to be suffered to enter. Ninety-six, of which forty-one were arrested and placed in confinement for a time, were excluded from the House. Pride’s purge, as it was called, left a majority in the Commons which would vote as the army wished it.

Cromwell was not in London when Pride's purge was carried out; but there can be little doubt that he approved of it. The next thing to be done was to give an appearance of legality to that which the law
5 did not sanction. The king was fetched up to Windsor, and on January 1, 1649, the diminished Commons passed a resolution: 'That, by the fundamental laws of this kingdom, it is treason in the King of England for the time being to levy war against the Parliament
10 and kingdom of England'; after which it appointed a high court of justice, consisting of 150 persons, to try the king.

The next day, the Lords—there were but twelve peers still sitting in the House—refused their consent.
15 On the 4th the Commons declared, 'That the people' were, 'under God, the original of all just power,' and that the House of Commons 'being chosen by and representing the people,' had supreme power, and that therefore, without the concurrence of the peers, a re-
20 solution of the House of Commons would have the force of law.

The High Court of Justice was constituted, but not half the members appointed to it ever took their seats. Cromwell was there, but not Fairfax. When
25 Fairfax's name was called, his wife cried out from amongst the spectators, 'He is not here, and will never be. You do him wrong to name him.'

Before such a court as could be brought together Charles was placed upon his trial. Of course he re-
30 fused to plead before it. He did not know, he said, how a king might be a delinquent by any law he ever heard of. The court condemned him to die, and on January 29, 1649, he was executed in front of his own palace of Whitehall.

35 It was harder to build up a new government than to destroy an old one. The fifty or sixty members who remained sitting at Westminster declared that England was now a Commonwealth, and considering themselves entitled to the name of the Parliament of
40 England, they entrusted the government to a Council of State, consisting of forty persons. This so-called

Commonwealth would not have lasted very long if the army had not been there to support it. The constituencies had not been consulted, and there is every reason to suppose that, if they had been, they would not have been favourable to the men who had brought about the execution of the king. Even the army would soon have got tired of such a mockery of Parliamentary government, if it had not been employed in important wars, which gave its leaders no time to think of Constitutional reforms. 5 10

The first of these wars was that of Ireland. Ever since 1642 there had been fighting going on in that unhappy country; and now that there was no longer any civil war in England, it was possible to send a force across the Channel strong enough to subdue Ireland. There was no thought in England of paying the slightest attention to the wrongs of the Irish. All Puritans, and most Protestants who were not Puritans, believed it to be impious as well as dangerous to tolerate the Catholic worship, and they also believed themselves justified in confiscating the lands of all Irishmen who had taken part in the war. Cromwell was first at the head of the army which was to conquer Ireland again. To us his campaign in Ireland seems the part of history which is the least praiseworthy; but it must not be forgotten that he himself regarded it as not only justifiable, but absolutely meritorious. 15 20 25

When Cromwell landed in Ireland he found almost the whole country in the hands of the Irish. He marched against Drogheda and laid siege to it. The garrison was mainly composed of English Royalists. Cromwell stormed the town and butchered the garrison. There was afterwards another massacre at Wexford, but this was not ordered by Cromwell. Before long so much of the country was subdued that Cromwell was able to return to England, leaving the rest of the work to be accomplished by his subordinates. All the Irish who had taken part in the war—and there were few indeed who had not—were to be removed to the desolate wildernesses of Connaught, whilst their lands 30 35 40

were divided amongst Cromwell's soldiers and those Englishmen who had during the last seven years subscribed money to carry on the war. The Catholic worship was forbidden wherever the English power
5 reached.

Such was Cromwell's campaign against the Irish in 1649. In 1650 Cromwell had a very different enemy to meet. The Scots were smarting under their defeat at Preston, and they loathed the very idea of
10 establishing a Commonwealth, in which there would be toleration for the various sects. They therefore sent for the young Charles, the eldest son of the late king, and acknowledged him as their king. Charles II. was obliged, as long as he was in Scotland, to attend
15 the Presbyterian worship and to listen to the Presbyterian sermons. When the English Parliament proposed to send an army against him, Fairfax was asked to command it. Fairfax refused to go. He thought that, as at that time England and Scotland were se-
20 parate nations, the Scots had as much right to set up a monarchy as the English had to set up a commonwealth. Cromwell looked at the matter from a practical point of view. He felt sure that if Charles II. were allowed to maintain himself as King of Scotland, he
25 would before long want to make himself King of England as well, especially as he had numerous partisans to the south of the Tweed. Cromwell therefore held himself justified in anticipating this danger by invading Scotland, and accepted the command which Fairfax
30 declined to take.

Of all Cromwell's campaigns, this one in Scotland presented the greatest difficulties. In his opponent, David Leslie, he had to deal with a commander who understood the art of war, and who would not scatter
35 his troops aimlessly about the country as Hamilton had done at Preston. When the English commander had crossed the border, he made for Edinburgh, longing to bring the Scots to a pitched battle. But the Scots would not fight. They entrenched themselves in strong
40 positions, and waited till the English invaders had consumed all the provisions which they could obtain.

At last the time came when Cromwell was forced to retreat. He reached Dunbar, but the Scots had occupied the road which ran to Berwick between the hills and the sea, and had cut off his way back to England. The bulk of the Scottish army lay upon the Doon Hill to the south of Dunbar. He could neither go backwards nor forwards. It would have been too dangerous to march up the steep hill to attack a whole army. There was nothing for it but to wait patiently at Dunbar till either an English fleet appeared to carry off his men, or the Scots committed some blunder, which under Leslie's guidance they were not very likely to do. 5 10

At last, even with Leslie in command, the blunder was committed. The Scots could not bear to think of the invaders escaping to a place of safety. On the afternoon of September 2 they began to move, as if intending to come down in the morning in order to fall upon the English army in the plain. Cromwell marked the movement, and made his preparations for the next day's battle. Before dawn on the morning of the 3rd everything was in readiness. As the sun rose Cromwell directed the attack on the Scots as they were struggling down to reach the level ground. 'Let God arise,' he cried, 'and let His enemies be scattered.' His horsemen plunged into the Scottish column and broke it, driving the fugitives back amongst their own men. In a moment all was in confusion. The Scots trampled one another down, and the English dashed, slaying as they went, into the flying crowd. Three thousand honest Scotsmen lay dead on the hillside. Ten thousand prisoners were taken. Whilst the English cavalry was forming for the pursuit, Cromwell bade them halt and sing the psalm which calls on all nations to praise the Lord for His loving-kindness. 15 20 25 30 35

In Cromwell's mind there was no doubt that he was fighting the battle of God. He believed it as firmly as Drake had believed it when he rifled the treasure-ships of Spain. Nor can there be any doubt that in this war his was the nobler cause. If the Scots had had their way, they would have suppressed 40

all religious liberty in England. Yet, in the end, it was not by the sword that religious liberty was secured. It came when men's thoughts were prepared to receive it. In Cromwell's time only a few men here and there
5 cared for it, and even a victorious army could not maintain it for more than a short time.

The first result of the battle was the occupation of Edinburgh by Cromwell. Leslie, however, still kept an army together, and in the next summer he resolved
10 to try one more chance. Slipping by Cromwell, he marched swiftly across the border into England, and advanced southwards, hoping that the English Royalists would join him. The English Royalists, however, did not rise. The fear of Cromwell's army was upon them.
15 The Scots struggled on till they reached Worcester, when Cromwell, who had been following hard upon their heels, came up with them, and defeated them utterly. The battle of Worcester was fought September 3, 1651, exactly one year after the battle of Dunbar.
20 'The dimensions of this mercy,' wrote Cromwell, 'are above my thoughts. It is, for aught I know, a crowning mercy.' It was the last that, in the shape of victory, Cromwell was to have. He had seven years yet to live, but he never again drew sword on a field
25 of battle.

For a year and a half Cromwell and the army watched the proceedings of the Parliament, and they did not like what they saw. They wished to bring to a close a war with the Dutch in which England
30 was engaged, because they disliked seeing a war between men of the same Protestant faith. The domestic actions of Parliament were still more displeasing to them. The few members who remained on the benches had a vast amount of patronage to dispose of, and it
35 was observed that a son or brother of a member had far more chance of obtaining a vacant post than any other person would have. It was believed, too, that many of the members were open to bribery. All persons who had taken the king's side had been made liable
40 to lose their estates, in order that the expenses of the war might be met by the sale of these confiscated

lands. After a time, however, Parliament discovered that it was difficult to know all the lands which a Royalist might own. An order was therefore given that any Royalist who would make a true declaration of his whole property should receive back a third part 5 of it. When the Royalists attended to make their declarations, difficulties were often thrown in their way. Some were favoured, and allowed to go home on easy terms. Others were kept hanging about for many weeks, and were only permitted to return after agreeing 10 to surrender more than they could fairly be asked to give. It was generally believed, and probably with truth, that those who were treated well had gained their advantage over the others by slipping a sum of a hundred pounds or so into the hands of some in- 15 fluent member of Parliament.

The officers of the army wished that an end should speedily be put to so miserable a state of affairs. By the law as it stood, however, no one could dissolve that Parliament without its own consent, and they 20 urged the Parliament to prepare the way for a new assembly to be elected by the English people. With no very good-will Parliament did what it was asked to do. A bill was brought in by Sir Harry Vane to make the elections more fair than they had hitherto 25 been, to disfranchise little villages, and to distribute their members amongst the counties and the large towns. This bill, in short, was to do what was afterwards done by the great Reform Bill of 1832. Yet, though the Parliament was brought to acknowledge 30 that there ought to be fresh elections, it postponed the date of them as long as possible, and finally resolved that there should be no dissolution in the proper sense of the word. There were to be elections for all the constituencies which happened to be vacant; but 35 those members who had places in the old Parliament were to continue sitting in the new one, without presenting themselves to their constituencies for re-election.

Cromwell and the officers could not bear that men, 40 many of whom were unworthy to sit at all, should

thus perpetuate their membership. In the spring of 1653 they had a long conference with the Parliamentary leaders, and obtained a promise from them that they would not go on with their bill till a further consultation had been held. On April 20, news was brought that, in spite of this promise, Parliament was debating on the bill, and would pass it with all its faults. Cromwell at once went to his place in the House, dressed 'in plain black clothes and worsted stockings.'

10 When the bill was about to be passed, he beckoned Harrison to his side. 'This is the time,' he said; 'I must do it.' He rose to speak, saying something at first in praise of that Parliament. Then he changed his tone, and complained of its injustice and its other

15 faults. An astonished member rose to call him to order. Cromwell was not to be called to order. 'Come, come,' he said excitedly, 'I will put an end to your prating.' Then striding up and down the floor, he cried out, 'You are no Parliament; I say you are no

20 Parliament; I will put an end to your sitting. Call them in, call them in!' Soldiers waiting outside, entered now. Cromwell was in an angry mood. He spoke harsh words of many of the members. Then, seeing the mace, the symbol of the Speaker's authority,

25 he said sneeringly, 'What shall we do with this bauble? There, take it away!' After Harrison had handed the Speaker from his chair, Cromwell looked round again. 'It's you', he said to the members, 'that have forced me to this; for I have sought the Lord night and day

30 that He would rather slay me than put me on the doing of this work.' He then ordered the House to be cleared, and as soon as the doors were locked he strode away. During the night some wag stuck up a paper on the door, on which was written, 'This House

35 to be let, now unfurnished.'

When Cromwell and the officers had turned out the Parliament, they had to consider how public business was to be carried on. After a while they determined to summon an assembly, not elected by constituencies like a House of Commons, but named by

40 Cromwell, after consultation with his officers and the

chief Puritan ministers. Royalist scoffers gave to this assembly the nickname of the Barebones Parliament, from the odd name of one of its members, Praise-God Barebones, a leather-seller of Fleet Street.

This unfortunate Parliament tried to do what it 5
could for the good of the country. It set its hand to
the reform of law, and it attempted to make new
arrangements for the Church. There was a violent
contention between two parties as to whether the clergy
should be paid by the State or not, and at last it 10
appeared that the party which wished that the clergy
should be supported by voluntary payments had a
small majority of two. It was impossible for a House
almost equally divided to settle the principles upon
which government should be conducted, and the major- 15
ity agreed to surrender all powers which they possessed
to Cromwell. By the advice of the council of officers,
Cromwell assumed the government of the country under
the title of Lord Protector. A Constitution was drawn
up, known as the Instrument of Government, by which 20
the new Protector was to be bound to take the advice
of a Council of State, and to summon a single House
of Parliament once in three years, in which members
of Scotland and Ireland were to be admitted. This
Parliament was to make laws and to vote taxes. The 25
Protector was not to dissolve it till after it had sat
for five months.

The fact was that the nation was anxious for
peace and order, and Cromwell wished to give it what
it wanted. He made peace with the Dutch, against 30
whom the Commonwealth had been at war; and he
hoped that the new Parliament, when it met, would
devote itself to useful legislation.

On September 3, 1654, the new Parliament met.
Much to Cromwell's surprise it began by asking that 35
the Instrument of Government should be submitted to
its judgment, and that it, and not the officers, should
decide under what Constitution England was to be
ruled. We can easily understand why it was that
Cromwell objected to this. If this Parliament were 40

to settle everything it might prolong its own powers as the Long Parliament had done. It might refuse to grant religious liberty, or might do anything else that was tyrannical. Yet, on the other hand, the
5 Parliament could hardly give way. It felt instinctively that it was for the representatives of the nation to decide, and not for any body of officers, however distinguished. It is better that nations should blunder on, feeling the consequences of their own errors, and
10 providing remedies for them from time to time, than that they should be driven in the right way by a power beyond their control.

Cromwell could not understand this; could not come down from his high position to see the country
15 drifting aimlessly away into evil courses. In setting himself against his Parliament he was entering upon a struggle in which he might be successful as long as he lived, but in which he would be unable to secure equal success for those who came after him.

20 Cromwell had the army at his back, and, if that was the case, there was no force in England capable of resisting his will. He called upon the members of Parliament to sign a declaration that they would be faithful to the Lord Protector and the Commonwealth,
25 and would not endeavour to alter the government as it was settled by the Instrument of Government. Those who signed this were admitted to the House. Those who refused to do it were excluded.

Even those members who were admitted did not
30 act as Cromwell wished them to act. They were angry and querulous, and the Protector longed for the day when the five months would be over, after which he would be at liberty to dissolve the Parliament. Before the time arrived the thought struck him that the In-
35 strument of Government had not said whether these months were to be calendar or lunar months. As soon, therefore, as five lunar months were ended he dissolved the Parliament which had been so troublesome to him.

40 Cromwell, left without a Parliament, must either

give up all thought of governing the country, or must govern it even more absolutely than Charles I. had once done. If he chose to govern absolutely, it was because he felt it to be his duty to do so, not because he preferred it. Other rulers, like the first Napoleon, 5 for instance, have thought of absolute power as a good thing in itself, and have rejoiced to trample the rights of others under foot. It is Cromwell's highest praise that he felt uncomfortable at what he was doing, and that from time to time he tried to surround himself 10 with a Parliament that should act with him instead of thwarting him.

It could not be; Cromwell had against him both the Republicans, who thought that the nation ought to be governed by its own representatives freely chosen, 15 and the Royalists, who thought that it ought to submit to that form of government to which it had been accustomed for many generations. The Republicans were the first to plot against the Protector. Cromwell, however, detected the conspiracy, and imprisoned its 20 leaders. Then followed a rising of the Royalists. Penruddock, with a party of gentlemen attached to the king, entered Salisbury by night, and seized two of the judges, who had arrived to hold the assizes, whilst they were still in bed. Penruddock and his comrades, 25 however, were soon captured. He himself and a few others were executed, and the movement was entirely suppressed.

Cromwell's power could not be overthrown as long as the army supported him. That power he used 30 well, much better, at all events, than either the Republicans or the Royalists were likely to use it. But no nation, and least of all the English nation, likes to be driven by force even along the right road. Cromwell had to levy taxes by his own sole authority, and 35 now he found that it would be necessary to keep a special watch upon the country gentlemen, who were Royalists almost to a man. He therefore divided England into ten military districts, placing each under a major-general, who was to exercise a strict supervision 40

over the Royalists. Cromwell thought that, as the Royalists had made this measure necessary, they ought to bear the expense. He therefore laid a special tax of ten per cent, upon the Royalists, which they alone
5 were to pay.

Great as were Cromwell's difficulties at home, abroad he maintained the dignity of the country. Admiral Blake was despatched with a fleet to the Mediterranean, where he compelled the Pope and the
10 Grand Duke of Tuscany to make compensation to English merchants for allowing English property, which had been captured by Prince Rupert at sea, to be sold in their States. He then sailed for Tunis, which, like Algiers, was at that time a den of Mohammedan
15 pirates. These pirates were in the habit of taking sailors out of the ships which they captured, forcing them to labour as slaves. The harbour of Tunis was guarded by forts, and the pirates believed themselves to be safe. Blake destroyed their forts and burned
20 their ships, after which, not only the pirates of Tunis, but those also of Tripoli and Algiers, gave up their English slaves, promising to make no more.

Whilst Blake was in the Mediterranean, Cromwell's anger was aroused by an act of brutality committed
25 by an Italian sovereign. In some of the valleys of the Alps, under the dominion of the Duke of Savoy, the ancestor of the present King of Italy, lived a Protestant population known as the Waldensians. Attempts had been made by the Catholic priests to convert
30 them, but those attempts had been resisted, and one of the priests was murdered. The duke, instead of simply punishing the murderer, ordered the people to leave their homes and to confine themselves to a certain region. On their refusing to go, the duke's soldiers
35 were let loose upon them, and there was a terrible massacre, in which at least three hundred were killed, many of them under circumstances of great barbarity.

In England a strong feeling of sympathy arose. Large sums of money were gathered by subscription
40 for the survivors. Cromwell sent a special ambassador

to the duke to protest against these proceedings, and to ask for pardon for the remaining Waldensians. As the duke did not seem inclined to do anything, Cromwell appealed to Mazarin, the French chief minister, and by his intervention the duke was brought to yield, 5 and to allow the Waldensians to continue to inhabit their ancient homes.

Mazarin had been ready to help Cromwell, because he expected much from Cromwell in return. For many years France and Spain had been at war, and each of 10 these States had bidden high for the help of England. Probably Cromwell would have been wise to have refrained from giving help to either. But he saw that France, Catholic as she was, tolerated Protestants, and that Spain was altogether intolerant. Cromwell, too, 15 took up the old quarrel of the Elizabethan sailors, and required the King of Spain to allow Englishmen to trade freely in the West Indies. When he made this double request for freedom of trade and for freedom of religion for English sailors, the Spanish ambassador 20 sternly refused to grant either. 'It is,' he said, 'to ask my master's two eyes.' Cromwell sent a fleet to the West Indies, directing the commander to capture Hispaniola. They failed in this, but they seized Jamaica. A war with Spain was begun, and England entered 25 upon a close alliance with France.

A war costs money, and to get the requisite money Cromwell resolved once more to summon a Parliament. But he wanted to have a Parliament which would support him, and not one which would thwart him. 30 With this end in view he drew up a list of ninety-three of the members, and refused to allow any of them to sit in the House. Those who were left were ready to support Cromwell.

The new Parliament had not sat long before news 35 arrived of a great naval victory. A Spanish fleet laden with silver had been taken in Cadiz Bay by Captain Stayner; and not long afterwards a still richer Spanish fleet had been taken by Blake at Teneriffe. But even such victories as these would not induce the Parliament 40

to support Cromwell in everything. The Parliament forced him to abandon the tax upon the Royalists, and to deprive the new major-generals of their powers. But it had no wish to be deprived of his services. 5 The discovery of a plot to assassinate him made the members anxious, and before long an address was drawn up, usually known as the Petition and Advice, in which the Protector was asked to consent to the alteration of the Instrument of Government in certain 10 points. He was asked to take the title of king, and to nominate a number of persons to form an upper house, like the old House of Lords. He was also to promise never again to exclude any properly elected members from the House of Commons. Cromwell after 15 some hesitation refused to take the royal title, but in all other points he accepted the Petition and Advice.

If Cromwell was not to be king in name, he was king in fact. On June 26, 1657, he was solemnly installed as Lord Protector in Westminster Abbey. 20 Parliament had granted him the supplies which he needed, and he was full of hope that an army which he had sent to join the French in Flanders would meet with success. But he had fresh troubles in store. When Parliament met again in January 1658, it was 25 composed of two Houses. The two Houses at once began to quarrel, and Cromwell, seeing that the quarrel was likely to be endless, dissolved Parliament almost in despair. 'The Lord,' he said, 'judge between me and you.'

30 Victory came as he expected. Dunkirk, then a Spanish town, was taken by the combined forces, and, according to agreement, was handed over to England. Cromwell had but a few months to live. He tried to govern as well as he could, to tolerate all religious 35 opinions, except those which, as he believed, were dangerous to the State. But he had large classes of men against him. The members of the old Church of England hankered after the restoration of the monarchy. The Republicans hankered after a government without 40 a Lord Protector. Thousands who cared for neither monarchy nor republic wished to have some certainty

that peace and order would not come to an end by the death of a single man. Thousands, too, were eager to see an end of Puritan strictness, and to enter unchecked upon a career of mirth, and jollity, and vice.

During the summer of 1658 Cromwell's health 5 was failing. His favourite daughter died, and her death saddened his heart. In the end of August he was seriously ill, and on September 3, the anniversary of Worcester and Dunbar, he died.

Cromwell's last prayer from his sick-bed is touching in its simplicity. 'Lord,' he said, as he tossed on his bed, 'though I am a miserable and wretched creature, I am in covenant with Thee through grace, and I may, I will, come to Thee for Thy people. Thou hast made me, though very unworthy, a mean instru- 15 ment to do them some good and Thee service; and many of them have set too high a value on me, though others wish and would be glad of my death. But, Lord, however Thou dost dispose of me, continue and go on to do good for them. Give them consistency of 20 judgment, one heart, and mutual love; and go on to deliver them and with the work of reformation, and make the name of Christ glorious in the world. Teach those who look too much upon Thine instruments to depend more upon Thyself; pardon such as desire to 25 trample upon the dust of a poor worm, for they are Thy people too; and pardon the folly of this short prayer, even for Jesus Christ's sake—and give us a good night, if it be Thy pleasure.'

Cromwell's death left England without a guide. 30 After a year and a half of confusion, it drifted back into the old system, and accepted Charles II. as its king. Cromwell's life stands out as a warning that force is incapable of guiding a nation, even when it is in the hands of a man animated by the best in- 35 tentions. England was resolved to take its own course for good and for evil, and that course was in the end a better one than even Oliver Cromwell would have chosen for his beloved country. Large-minded and tolerant as he was, he was not large-minded or tolerant 40

enough. His religious system was but the religious system of a minority. He feared lest, if the majority had its way, it would trample down all that he held to be sacred. He dared not give liberty to the English Church, and still less did he dare to give liberty to the English and Irish Catholics. During his lifetime he could maintain the supremacy of Puritanism. When he died, it crumbled away.

Anmerkungen.

(Von den vor jeder Anmerkung stehenden Zahlen bezeichnet die fatter gedruckte die Seite, die mit mageren Ziffern gedruckte die Zeile, zu welcher die Anmerkung gehört.)

Sir Thomas More.

Sir Thomas More. Die Baronets (unterste erbliche Adelsklasse) und die Knights (nicht erblich) haben die Berechtigung, *Sir* vor den Vornamen zu setzen.

1, 7. *Cardinal Morton*, John, wurde 1446 Lehrer der Rechtsgelchrsamkeit an der Universität Oxford. Nach manchem Wechsel des Schicksals wurde er erster Minister Heinrichs VII., später (1486) Erzbischof von Canterbury, 1493 Kardinal; er starb 1500.

18. *Henry VII.* regierte 1485—1509; er war vermählt mit der letzten Prinzessin aus dem Hause York, Elisabeth; ihm folgte sein Sohn Heinrich VIII.; vgl. 5, 31.

2, 11. *the revolution* hatte zwischen den beiden Linien Lancaster und York 30 Jahre lang in England gewährt (1455 bis 1485). Nach den Abzeichen der Parteihäupter wurde sie der Krieg der roten (Lancaster) und weissen (York) Rose genannt (The war of the Roses). Im Jahre 1485 wurde der letzte König aus dem Hause York, Richard III., welcher sich 1483 gewaltsam des Thrones bemächtigt hatte, bei Bosworth durch einen Seitensprössling des Hauses Lancaster, Heinrich Tudor, Graf von Richmond, besiegt und verlor in der Schlacht sein Leben. Heinrich Tudor bestieg den Thron als Heinrich VII.

24. *Oxford* ist die Hauptstadt der gleichnamigen Grafschaft an der Themse. Die daselbst 1249 gegründete Universität ist die berühmteste Englands.

30. *Greek.* Die griechische Sprache wurde bis zum Ende des Mittelalters im Abendlande so gut wie nicht gepflegt. Erst mit dem Wiedererwachen der klassischen Studien gelangte sie allerseits zu Ehren und wurde in Deutschland

und den Niederlanden durch Reuchlin, Erasmus, Melanchthon u. a., in England vorzüglich durch Erasmus von Rotterdam (vgl. 4,34) eingeführt.

3, 5. *Shakspeare*, gewöhnlich *Shakespeare*, der berühmte englische Dramatiker, lebte 1564 bis 1616. — *Milton* (1608—1674), der Verfasser des religiösen Epos *Paradise Lost*, war einige Zeit Sekretär des Staatsrats unter Cromwell.

6. *Burke*, Edmund (1731—1797), ein Zeitgenosse Johnsons war neben dem bekannten Parlamentsredner Pitt (1708—1778) der bedeutendste Redner seiner Zeit. — *Scott*, Walter (1771—1832), ist der Begründer des historischen Romanes; seine hervorragendsten Romane sind die *Waverley Novels*.

8. *Chaucer*, Geoffrey (1340—1400), der Vater der englischen Dichtkunst genannt, lebte am Hofe Edwards III. und Richard II.; er ist der Verfasser der *Canterbury Tales*.

27. *Colet* war Dechant der St. Paulskirche und Gründer der St. Paul's School; vgl. 6, 29.

40. *The House of Commons*. Das englische Parlament besteht aus zwei Kammern: House of Lords (Peers) oder Upper House und *House of Commons* oder Lower House. Das Oberhaus besteht z. Z. aus 545 Vertretern der höheren Geistlichkeit (Lords spiritual) und des Adels (Lords temporal). Das Unterhaus setzt sich z. Z. aus 670 vom Volke gewählten Abgeordneten zusammen; es wählt aus seiner Mitte einen Präsidenten (*Speaker*, vgl. 10, 36) für die ganze Dauer eines Parlaments; ist dieser durch Krankheit verhindert den Vorsitz zu führen, so vertritt ihn der Vizepräsident (Chairman of Committees).

4, 34. *Erasmus*, geb. zu Rotterdam 1467, war einer der eifrigsten Förderer der klassischen Studien, besonders der griechischen Sprache, welche er längere Zeit in Oxford und Cambridge lehrte; er bereiste alle zivilisierten Länder Europas und lebte zuletzt in Basel, wo er 1536 starb. Unter seinen zahlreichen Werken ist die Ausgabe des neuen Testaments im griechischen Urtext nebst lateinischer Übersetzung eines der wichtigsten.

5, 31. *Henry VIII.* regierte von 1509—1547.

6, 29. *St. Paul's School* wurde 1509 von John Colet mit 153 Freiplätzen zur Erteilung klassischen Unterrichts an Söhne armer Leute gegründet. Sie ist noch heute eine der größten und besten Mittelschulen (Great Public Schools) Englands und von etwa 600 Schülern besucht.

7, 19. *the old claims of Edward III. to the throne of France*. Eduard III. glaubte durch seine Mutter Isabella, eine Tochter Philipp IV. von Frankreich, Anspruch auf den französischen Thron erheben zu können, obwohl nach dem salischen Gesetze die Töchter kein Erbrecht hatten. Er legte sich den Titel eines Königs von Frankreich bei und begann den französisch-englischen Erbfolgekrieg 1340. Im Jahre 1346 gewann er die Schlacht bei Crecy. Sein Sohn Eduard, der schwarze Prinz,

besiegte 10 Jahre später den französischen König Johann bei Poitiers und führte ihn gefangen nach London.

31. *Act of Parliament*. Ein Gesetzantrag (bill) wird zu einem gültigen Gesetz, nachdem er bei dreimaliger Lesung und Abstimmung durch beide Häuser gegangen ist und die Zustimmung des Königs erhalten hat. Sobald das Gesetz im Gesetzbuch eingetragen ist, heisst es *Statute* (Z. 32).

8, 29. *Those who in the reign of Richard II.* etc. Unter Richard II. (1377—1399) erhob sich infolge drückender Steuern ein gefährlicher Volksaufstand (1382), an dessen Spitze Wat Tyler stand; nur durch des Königs Energie wurde er bald unterdrückt.

9, 35. *to give up his unprofitable wars*, welche er zuerst (1512) mit Kaiser Maximilian I. gegen Ludwig XII. und später (1522) mit Kaiser Karl V. gegen Franz I. von Frankreich führte, in der Absicht die französische Krone zu erlangen.

10, 27/28. *Privy Councillor*, Mitglied des geheimen Rates des Königs. Jetzt gehören dem Privy Council die königlichen Prinzen, die zwei Erzbischöfe, der Bischof von London, die aktiven sowie die früheren Minister ständig als Mitglieder an; ausserdem kann der König (bez. die Königin) nach Belieben bedeutende Männer in unbeschränkter Anzahl zu Mitgliedern ernennen. Die politische Bedeutung des Privy Council ist heutzutage keine grosse; er berät nur über Fragen, bei denen es sich um Ausübung eigentlicher Hoheitsrechte (Einberufung, Vertagung, Schluss des Parlaments u. s. f.) handelt.

11, 3. *Cardinal Wolsey*, geb. 1481, wurde 1514 Erzbischof von York, 1515 Kardinal und Lordkanzler. Weil er der Scheidung Heinrich VIII. von Katharina von Aragonien abgeneigt war, wurde ihm das Reichssiegel genommen, und der Gerichtshof *King's Bench* (vgl. 13, 24) verurteilte ihn zum Verlust seiner Güter und zu lebenslänglichem Gefängnis; der König aber begnadigte ihn. Er starb 1530, als man ihn neuerdings verfolgen wollte.

12, 17. *Catherine of Aragon* war die Tochter Ferdinands von Aragonien und Isabellas von Kastilien. Sie hatte nach dem Tode ihres ersten Gemahls, des Prinzen Arthur von Wales, dessen Bruder Heinrich VIII. geheiratet (1509), der sich von ihr trennte, um ihre Hofdame Anne Boleyn zu heiraten.

19. *Anne Boleyn* (ey = ī) wurde am 1. Juni 1533 als Königin von England gekrönt, am 19. Mai 1536 wurde sie zum Tode verurteilt und im Tower enthauptet. Die spätere Königin Elisabeth war ihre Tochter.

25. *Lord Chancellor* (auch Lord High Chancellor) ist der angesehenste unter den Ministern. Kanzler war in der ersten normännischen Zeit stets der Beichtvater des Königs; er war zugleich sein erster Berater und oberster Richter des Reiches. Als Bewahrer des Staatssiegels (Great Seal) hiess er auch Keeper oder Lord Keeper, und noch heute geschieht seine Ernennung unter Überreichung des Grossen Siegels durch den Monarchen. Er leitet jetzt die Beratungen des Oberhauses,

besitzt neben dem Kanzleramte das des Justizministers, ist Präsident des High Court of Chancery, der seit 1873 eine Abteilung des obersten Reichsgerichts (High Court of Justice) bildet, und Mitglied der obersten Berufungsinstanz (Her Majesty's Court of Appeal).

13, 24. *the Court of King's* (bez. *Queen's*) *Bench* war stets der Gerichtshof höchster Instanz, der auch über Verbrechen richtete, welche die Krone angingen. Den Vorsitz führte ursprünglich der König, auf einer Bank sitzend; daher die Benennung *King's* bzw. *Queen's Bench*. Jetzt bildet auch dieser Gerichtshof, welcher aus 15 Richtern (Justices) unter dem Vorsitze des Oberstrichters (Lord Chief Justice of England) besteht, eine Abteilung des High Court of Justice. Er ist berechtigt über alle Verstöße gegen das Gesetz, vom Verbrechen des Hochverrats bis herab zum einfachsten Vergehen (letzteres als Berufungsinstanz der Grafschaftsgerichte) zu entscheiden.

15, 6. *Chelsea* ist einer der westlichen Distrikte Londons am linken Themseufer.

16, 5. *Mary* folgte ihrem Stiefbruder Eduard VI. im Jahre 1553 auf dem Throne und starb 1558.

24. *Lambeth*, ein Distrikt im Südwesten, am rechten Ufer der Themse. Dort befindet sich die alte Residenz der Erzbischöfe von Canterbury, genannt *Lambeth Palace*.

41. *to the Tower*, d. h. in die von Wilhelm dem Eroberer am linken unteren Ufer der Themse erbaute Zwingburg (*White Tower*), welche ursprünglich den Königen als Wohnsitz, daneben, und später lediglich, als Staatsgefängnis diente. Er wurde im Laufe der Zeit, zuletzt unter Wilhelm III. (1689—1702) bedeutend erweitert. Heinrich VIII. liefs besonders viele angesehene Personen — seine Gemahlinnen Anne Boleyn und Catharina Howard, Thomas More u. a. — in den Tower werfen und daselbst enthaupten.

18, 3. *supreme head on earth of the Church of England*. Dieser Parlamentsbeschluss wurde am 3. November 1534 gefasst; durch ihn wollte Heinrich VIII. eigentlich nur das Oberhaupt einer vom Papste unabhängigen, englischen Staatskirche werden, die katholisch bleiben sollte, wie er selbst es bleiben wollte. Dies bewies er durch das von ihm veranlasste Gesetz der „Six Bloody Articles“, durch welches 1539 der Glaube an die Lehre von der Transsubstantiation, Beibehaltung der Messe, der Ohrenbeichte u. s. f. unter den härtesten Strafen anbefohlen wurde. In reformatorische Bahnen lenkte die Staatskirche erst unter Eduard VI. (1547—1553), Heinrichs VIII. unmündigem Sohne, während dessen Regierung das „Allgemeine Gebetbuch“ (*The Book of Common Prayer*) eingeführt wurde, welches in der (1589) unter Elisabeth gegebenen endgiltigen Fassung noch jetzt gebräuchlich ist.

7. *the Solicitor-General* ist einer der beiden Kronanwälte, der andere führt den Namen *Attorney-General*.

Sir Francis Drake.

22, 2. *Elizabeth's reign* dauerte von 1558—1603. — *Devonshire* ist eine der südwestlichen Grafschaften Englands mit der Hauptstadt Exeter.

3. *Tavistock*, eine kleine Stadt in Devonshire, am Flüßchen Tavy.

7. *Medway*, Nebenfluß der Themse, der sich bei dem Kriegshafen Chatham (Grafschaft Kent) zu einem vortrefflichen Hafenplatz erweitert.

8. *Protestants . . . oppressed*. Unter Heinrich VIII. wurden die Protestanten noch vielfach verfolgt (vgl. 18,3); erst unter Eduard VI. (1547—1553) wurden sie vom Staate geduldet und begünstigt. Unter seiner Nachfolgerin Marie der Katholischen aber fanden wieder die grausamsten Verfolgungen gegen sie statt.

23, 12. *The King of Spain* ist Philipp II. (1556—1598), der im Kriege mit England die Armada verlor (1588); *the King of Portugal*, Sebastian, welcher 1578 im Kampfe gegen die Mauren fiel. 1580 kam das Land an Spanien (bis 1640).

17. *The Pope*, Pius IV. (1565—1572).

31. *John Hawkins* war ein weithin bekannter Sklavenhändler; er soll gleich Drake zu der Einführung der Kartoffel beigetragen haben.

24, 34. *St. Juan d'Ulloa* (span. ll = lj), kleiner Hafen in der Nähe von Veracruz am Busen von Mexiko.

25, 37. *the Inquisition*, ein kirchliches zur Aufspürung und Bestrafung der Ketzer und Ungläubigen bestimmtes Gericht, wurde in Spanien zum erstenmale auf dem Reichstag zu Toledo (1480) mit königlicher Bewilligung eingeführt.

26, 9. *the Black Prince*, Eduard, Prinz von Wales, der älteste Sohn Eduards III. (vgl. 7,19), wurde nach seiner schwarzen Rüstung der schwarze Prinz genannt. Er zeichnete sich im französisch-englischen Erbfolgekrieg aus, starb 1376 in Canterbury und wurde in der dortigen Kathedrale beerdigt.

18. *the Dutch Republic*. Im Jahre 1572 gelang es Wilhelm von Oranien, die nördlichen niederländischen Provinzen zu vereinigen, die, gegen Spanien sich erhebend, ihn zum Statthalter wählten. Erst 1581 sagten sich alle der Utrechter Union angehörigen Provinzen förmlich von Spanien los und begannen den Unabhängigkeitskrieg.

30, 15. *Drake's chaplain*. Der Neffe des Admirals, Sir Francis Drake, gab eine Beschreibung "The World Encompassed" heraus, in der er sagt, sie sei nach den Notizen des Master Francis Fletcher, des Predigers, welcher seinen Onkel begleitete, verfaßt.

31, 4. *Tierra del Fuego* ist die spanische Benennung der Gruppe der Feuerlandinseln an der Südspitze von Amerika.

40. *No doubt Shakspeare had read this book etc.* Im *Tempest* (I, 2, 374 und V, 1,261) nennt Shakespeare den Gott

des wilden Sklaven Caliban Setebos. Offenbar ist dies ein Hauptgott der Patagonier gewesen, denn nicht nur Fletcher spricht von ihm, sondern es findet sich auch eine diesbezügliche Stelle in Edens History of Travel, welche 1577 als Übersetzung einer italienischen Reisebeschreibung des M. Antonio Pigafetta, eines Gefährten Magellans, veröffentlicht wurde. (Vgl. The Tempest ed. Wright.)

33, 29. *Tarapacá* (span.), ist die Hauptstadt einer Provinz von Perú.

38. *Aríca* (span.), Hafenstadt in Peru.

40. *Calláo* (spr. ll = lj). Dieser Hafen ist jetzt durch eine Eisenbahn mit Lima verbunden.

35, 21. *Acapúlco* (span.), Seestadt im Südwesten von Mexiko, hat einen vorzüglichen Hafen.

23. *Oregon* ist ein nordamerikanischer Freistaat im Norden von Kalifornien.

36, 18. *the Eastern Archipelago* (spr. ch = k), der ostindische Archipel.

37, 21. *the Tower of London*; vgl. 16, 41.

38, 19. *St. Paul's Cathedral* ist die im Mittelpunkt der City gelegene Hauptkirche Londons; Kathedrale der Bischöfe von London; der jetzige, 1675 begonnene und 1710 vollendete Bau rührt von Sir Christopher Wren her.

23. *Deptford* (p stumm), Vorstadt im Südwesten Londons, hat viele Schiffswerften; auf der kgl. Werft soll Peter der Grosse den Schiffsbau gelernt haben.

24. *Victory* war der Name von Nelsons Flaggenschiff in der Schlacht bei Trafalgar (1805). — *Portsmouth*, erster Kriegshafen Englands am Kanal.

39, 7. *Cartagena* wurde 1533 in Columbien am karaibischen Meere gegründet; Hauptstadt von Bolivar.

20. *Raleigh*, Sir Walter, der berühmte englische Seemann, hatte 1584 die erste englische Kolonie Virginien gegründet. 1603 wurde er der Teilnahme an einer Verschwörung gegen Jakob I. beschuldigt, zum Tode verurteilt und 13 Jahre im Tower gefangen gehalten; während dieser Zeit schrieb er seine "History of the World". 1616 wurde er freigelassen, segelte nach Guayana, um Goldminen auszubeuten, kehrte 1617 zurück und wurde auf Grund des früher gefällten Urteils 1618 hingerichtet.

25. *Camden*, William, ein bedeutender englischer Altertumsforscher und Geschichtschreiber, wurde geboren in London am 2. Mai 1551, starb dort 1623. Hauptwerke: *Britannia* (1586) und *Annales Elizabethae Reginae* (1615).

40, 4. *helped the Dutch in their revolt*; vgl. 26, 18.

11. *Fotheringhay*, Dorf in Northamptonshire; die Ruinen des Schlosses, in welchem Maria Stuart hingerichtet wurde, stehen noch.

41, 23. *The Duke of Medina Sidonia* führte seinen Namen nach einer Stadt in der Provinz Cadiz.

31. *the Prince of Parma*. Alexander Farnese, Herzog von Parma, der Sohn der Statthalterin der Niederlande, Margareta von Parma, war 1579—1592 selbst dort Statthalter. Er war einer der größten Feldherrn und Staatsmänner seiner Zeit. Sein eigenes Herzogtum Parma genoss während seiner Regierung (1586—1592) völligen Friedens.

42, 14. *Tilbury* ist ein Fort, Gravesend, am Ausgang der Themse, gegenüber.

15. *in the wars*; vgl. 26, 18.

35. *Lord Howard*, Herzog von Norfolk, geb. 1536, stand anfangs bei Elisabeth in hoher Gunst; als er aber in der Hoffnung, dadurch die Hand Maria Stuarts zu erlangen, heimlich für die katholische Sache arbeitete, wurde er 1569 in den Tower gebracht. Bald wieder in Freiheit gesetzt, trat er abermals mit Maria und zum Zwecke ihrer Befreiung und einer Empörung sogar mit Philipp II. von Spanien in Verbindung, wurde verraten, zum Tode verurteilt und 1572 hingerichtet.

43, 1. *Frobisher*, Sir Martin, unternahm in den Jahren 1576 bis 1578 Reisen zur Entdeckung der nordwestlichen Durchfahrt; er starb 1595 in Portsmouth.

3. *Hudson's Bay*, ein Binnenmeer an der Nordküste von Nordamerika, steht durch die Hudsonstraße und weiter nördlich durch die engere Frobisherstraße mit dem Atlantischen Ozean in Verbindung. Der Entdecker dieser Bay, Henry Hudson, wurde 1610 von seinen aufrührerischen Matrosen den Wellen preisgegeben.

5. *St. Juan d'Ulloa*; vgl. 24, 34.

13. *Chatham*; vgl. 22, 7.

15. *Lizard point* ist der südlichste Punkt Englands, Cornwall.

16. *as Macaulay tells the story* in dem Gedichte „The Armada“; vgl. Franz. und Englische Schulbibliothek, B. Bd. 11.

19. *Edgcumbe's lofty hall*. Mount *Edgcumbe* ist der Name des prächtigen Landsitzes des Earl of Edgcumbe, bei Devonport, einer Hafenstadt in Devonshire.

22. *sheriff* ist neben dem Lord Lieutenant, dem militärischen Statthalter einer Grafschaft der höchste Verwaltungs- und Gerichtsbeamte; beide Stellen sind unbesoldet (Ehrenämter).

44, 4. *Eddystone* ist der Name eines auf einem Felsen erbauten großartigen Leuchtturmes, 14 englische Meilen südlich von Plymouth. — *Berwick*, eine kleine Stadt an der Mündung des Tweed in die Nordsee. — *Lynn* (auch King's *Lynn*) sehr alte Stadt am rechten Ufer der Ouse, in Yorkshire in der Nähe des Wash. — *Milford Bay*, kleine Bucht an der Südwestspitze von Wales.

7. *St. Michael's Mount* ist ein isolierter Felsvorsprung mit einer Kapelle am südwestlichen Ende Englands, nahe bei Landsend. — *Beachy Head*, die höchste Klippe an der südöstlichen Küste Englands, zwischen Brighton und East Bourne.

16. *a game of bowls* (ō). Das bowling Spiel ist eine Art Kugelspiel, etwa unserem Eiskegeln (Eisschieben) vergleichbar, keineswegs aber unserm Kegelspiel ähnlich; die Bälle sind nicht kugelförmig, sondern etwas abgeplattet.

16. *Plymouth Hoe*, ein schöner Promenadeplatz mit Park am Strand in Plymouth; die Bucht im Süden von Plymouth führt den Namen Sound.

48, 13. *to leeward*. Die Leeseite ist die vom Winde abgewendete Seite des Schiffes, im Gegensatz zu der Luvseite (*weather side*), d. h. jener, die dem Winde ausgesetzt ist.

49, 5. *at St. Mary Port*. El Puerto (span. = Hafen) de Sta. Maria ist eine hübsche Hafenstadt Cadix gegenüber.

50, 23. *Corunna (La)*, (nn = nj) ist die Hauptstadt der Provinz gleichen Namens an der Nordwestküste von Spanien.

51, 8. *Puerto Rico*, gewöhnlich Portorico, eine der großen Antillen.

34. *Nombre de Dios*, Stadt im mexikanischen Staate Durango, besitzt bedeutende Baumwollfabriken.

35. *Porto Bello*, Hafen am Isthmus von Panamá, wurde von Kolumbus 1502 entdeckt.

37. *says an old writer*, der Theologe Fuller (1603—1665); derselbe ist neben Milton der beste Prosaschriftsteller seiner Zeit; sein Hauptwerk ist: „History of the Worthis of England.“

52, 18. *the massacre of Limoges*. Als der schwarze Prinz die südlichen und westlichen Provinzen Frankreichs verwüstete, fand in Limoges, der reichen Industriestadt an der Vienne, ein schreckliches Blutbad statt.

Oliver Cromwell.

53, 4. *James I.* Der Sohn der Maria Stuart, Jakob VI. von Schottland, war von Elisabeth als Erbe eingesetzt worden; er regierte als Jakob I. von 1603—1625; ihm folgte sein Sohn Karl I., 1625—1649.

17. *the Duke of Buckingham*. George Villiers wurde Günstling Jakobs I., der ihn zum Earl, dann zum *Duke of Buckingham* machte und ihm die höchsten Staatsämter übertrug.

24. *Huntingdon*, ein Städtchen am nördlichen Ufer der Ouse, in der Grafschaft gleichen Namens.

54, 4. *the very day on which Shakspeare died*, am 23. April 1616, zu Stratford am Avon.

15. *Puritan(s)* nennt man seit der Reformation jene Protestanten, welche unter möglichster Beseitigung aller Ceremoniellen die christliche Kirche in ihrer ursprünglichen Reinheit herstellen wollen.

55, 15. *the Petition of Right* (Bitte um Recht). Um die gegen ihn erregten Mitglieder des Parlaments und das Land zu beschwichtigen, erkannte Karl I. am 7. Juni 1628 die ihm von beiden Häusern vorgelegte *Petition of Right* als rechtskräftig an. In derselben wurden die schon von König Johann (1215)

in der Magna Charta gewährten Rechte von neuem bestätigt und bestimmt, daß der König keine Gelder ohne Zustimmung des Parlaments erheben solle, sowie daß nie wieder jemand auf ungesetzliche Weise seiner Freiheit beraubt oder abgeurteilt werden solle, wie es häufig unter Jakob und Karl selbst geschehen war.

25. *The king dissolved Parliament*, am 11. März 1629; das nächste wurde erst 1680 einberufen.

30/31. *to enforce upon all the clergy the whole of the Prayer Book*. Für die englische Staatskirche (Church of England) ist der Gebrauch ein und desselben Gebetbuches (*Prayer Book*) Vorschrift; vgl. 18,3.

56, 7. *Ship-money*. Das Schiffsgeld war eine Steuer, welche ursprünglich nur von den am Meere liegenden Grafschaften im Kriegsfall an Stelle der Schiffe, welche sie zur Verteidigung der Küste zu stellen hatten, gezahlt wurde. Karl aber erhob sie in allen Provinzen und auch in Friedenszeit.

12. *St. Ives*, kleine Stadt an der Ouse.

19. *The Short Parliament* dauerte nur vom 13. April bis 5. Mai 1640. Das Long Parliament wurde am 3. November desselben Jahres einberufen und dauerte bis zum 20. April 1653.

28. *Strafford, Charles's chief adviser*. Thomas Wentworth, geb. 1593, wurde von Karl zum Lord Wentworth und dann zum Earl of Strafford erhoben. Er hatte, 1621 ins Parlament eingetreten, die Petition of Right (55,15) sehr unterstützt, wurde 1628 Mitglied des Staatsrates und stand von da ab auf Seite des Königs, dessen kräftigste Stütze er wurde. Statthalter in England, dann Befehlshaber des gesamten Heeres, wurde er vor dem langen Parlamente des Hochverrats angeklagt, ungerecht zum Tode verurteilt und am 12. Mai 1641 hingerichtet.

33. *several courts which had inflicted punishment without the assistance of juries*. Karl hatte verschiedene Gerichtshöfe so beeinflusst und mit Richtern besetzt, daß sie ihm unbedingt gehorchten und nach seinem Wunsche richteten; auch erkannten sie auch auf unerlaubte Strafen, z. B. Prügelstrafe, Pranger. Das gefürchtetste dieser Gerichte war die Sternkammer, Star Chamber, so genannt nach dem Sitzungssaal in Westminster, dessen Decke mit einem Sternenhimmel bemalt war.

57, 20. *A rebellion had recently broken out in Ireland*, um 1641 die Engländer zu vertreiben; unter ihnen wurde im Oktober ein furchtbares Blutbad angerichtet.

59, 20. *at Edgehill*; dieses erste Treffen im Bürgerkrieg fand am 23. Oktober 1642 statt. — *Prince Rupert*, Ruprecht, ein Neffe Karl I., Sohn von dessen Schwester und dem Kurfürsten Friedrich V. von der Pfalz, war ein tüchtiger Feldherr.

38. *Hampden* war eine bedeutende Persönlichkeit. Er allein hatte gewagt, die unberechtigt erhobene Schiffssteuer zu verweigern. Die Sache wurde vor dem dem König ergebenen Exchequer Chamber (auch Court of Exchequer), dem Gerichtshofe für Streitsachen fiskalischer Natur, verhan-

- delt, und *Hampden* verlor den Prozeß, was in ganz England Aufregung verursachte. Er gehörte im langen Parlament zu den Gemäßigten; 1643 fiel er in einem Gefechte unweit Oxford.
- 60, 29. *Reading* (ea = ë), Stadt an der Themse an der Mündung des Kennet, oberhalb Windsor.
- 61, 1. *the army of the counties which had combined to form the Eastern Association*. Die 7 Grafschaften Essex, Suffolk, Norfolk, Lincoln, Cambridge, Huntingdon und Hertford hatten sich gegen den König verbunden.
12. *Marston Moor*, ein Dorf in der Nähe von York.
- 62, 41. *a Presbyterian*, ein Glied der Sekte, welche den sich dem Ritus der katholischen Kirche nähernden Kultus verwirft und sich die presbyterianische Kirche nennt; seit 1567 ist sie besonders in Schottland verbreitet, wo sie eine eigne Staatskirche (the Kirk) bildet, deren Haupt die Königin von England, deren Verwaltung aber republikanisch ist.
- 63, 1. *a Baptist*; die Wiedertäufer verwerfen die Kindertaufe. — *an Independent*, welcher keine kirchliche Oberherrschaft anerkennt, sodafs jede Gemeinde selbständig ist.
- 64, 6. *Alresford* ist ein Marktflecken am Itchin in Hampshire.
15. *Newbury*, Stadt in Berkshire unweit Reading (vgl. 60, 29). Die erste hier erwähnte Schlacht hatte am 20. September 1643 stattgefunden; die zweite wurde am 27. Oktober 1643 geschlagen.
19. *Essex*, Graf, neben Manchester Oberbefehlshaber des Parlamentsheeres, hatte dasselbe gegen Ruprecht geführt.
- 65, 27. *Sir Thomas Fairfax*, 1611—1671, wirkte später (1660) für die Rückberufung Karl II.
- 66, 7. *Naseby* liegt in der Nähe von Market Harborough in Northamptonshire.
35. *Newark*, Stadt am Trent in Nottinghamshire.
- 67, 3. *the Scots gave him up to the English Parliament*, gegen Bezahlung von 400 000 Pfund und verließen England.
- 68, 25. *Huntingdon*; vgl. 53, 24.
- 69, 10. *Hampton Court*, Schloß im Dorfe *Hampton* an der Themse, unfern London.
15. *Episcopal Church* ist die englische, wegen der bischöflichen Einrichtung so genannte Kirche.
17. *that system of toleration etc.* Das Gesetz, auf welches hier angespielt wird, war the Toleration Act vom 24. Mai 1689; auch dieses Duldungsgesetz liefs noch viele Härten unbeseitigt und kam vor allem den protestantischen Sekten zu gute.
32. *Carisbrooke Castle*, Schloß in *Carisbrooke*, nahe bei Newport, der Hauptstadt der Isle of Wight.
- 70, 25. *Pembroke*, bedeutender Hafen in Südwales.
29. *Preston*, Hafenstadt in Lancashire.
38. *Colchester*, Stadt am Colne, in der Grafschaft Essex.
- 71, 31. *Solent* heifst der Meeresarm zwischen der Isle of Wight und England.
- 72, 6. *the diminished Commons*; dieses dezimierte Parlament führte den Namen „Rump“, Rumpfparlament.
34. *in front of his own palace of Whitehall*. Dieser

Palast war ursprünglich die Residenz der Erzbischöfe von York und hatte den Namen York Palace. Als Wolsey (11,3) gestürzt wurde, nahm ihn Heinrich VIII. für sich und änderte den Namen in *Whitehall*; seitdem war es die Residenz der Könige, auch des Protektors Cromwell, bis 1690 und 1697 der ganze Häuserkomplex bis auf das noch heute stehende Banqueting House durch Feuer zerstört wurde.

73, 31. *Drogheda*, Hafenstadt nahe bei Dublin (nördl.), wo die Engländer ein schreckliches Blutbad veranstalteten.

34. *Wexford*, Hafen an der Südostküste von Irland.

41. *Connaught*, die westlichste Provinz Irlands.

75, 2. *Dunbar*, Hafenstadt in Schottland, am südlichen Ende des Firth of Forth.

76, 15. *Worcester* (spr. wòost'r), am Severn in der gleichnamigen Grafschaft.

77, 29. *the great Reform Bill of 1832*. Diese schon 1831 eingebrachte, von dem House of Lords abgewiesene Bill wurde am 7. Juni 1832 durch Zustimmung des Königs Wilhelm IV. rechtskräftig; sie regelte die Wahlverhältnisse.

79, 4. *Fleet-Street*, eine der bedeutendsten Straßen der City.

80, 26. *the Instrument of Government*. Das am 16. Dezember 1653 gegebene Gesetz bestimmte, daß Cromwell als „His Highness the Lord Protektor“ regieren sollte mit einem Rate von 13—21 Gliedern und einem Parlamente.

82, 8. *Admiral Blake*, 1599—1657; war vorher Befehlshaber des Landheeres gewesen.

27/28. *a Protestant population known as the Waldensians*. Schon um 1170 stiftete der Lyoner Peter Waldus die religiöse Gemeinschaft der Waldenser, die sich besonders über die Dauphiné, Provence und Piemont verbreitete. Seit sie 1184 mit dem Banne belegt waren, hatten sie schwere Verfolgung zu dulden. Einige Gemeinden finden sich noch in Piemont.

83, 4. *Mazarin*, 1602—1661, Kardinal und Nachfolger Richelieus als erster Minister Frankreichs.

24. *Hispaniola*, die sonst Hayti (San Domingo) genannte Insel der großen Antillen.

84, 16. *the Petition and Advice*. Die „Humble Petition and Advice“ 1657 trat an Stelle des „Instrument of Government“; sie gab dem Protektor das Recht, seinen Nachfolger zu bestimmen, setzte ihm ein festes Gehalt aus u. s. f.

19. *Westminster Abbey*. Die erste schon unter König Edgar um 960 hier vollendete Kirche wurde West-Minster genannt, weil sie im Westen der St. Pauls-Kathedrale (38,19) lag. Die jetzige Kirche enthält Reste aus verschiedenen Bauperioden; die letzte Hand legte auch hier Sir Christopher Wren an (1714). Sie ist die Krönungs- und Begräbnisstätte der Könige sowie vieler berühmter Männer.

30. *Dunkirk*. Seitdem Dünkirchen befestigt war (1400), stritten Engländer, Franzosen, Spanier, Niederländer um seinen Besitz.

85, 31. *it drifted back into the old system, and accepted Charles II. as its king*, am 8. Mai 1660; am 29. Mai hielt er seinen Einzug in London.

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